516.245

Extension Education in Community Development

S. 246

Extension Education In Community Development

Ext. 295

OFFICE OF THE PRINCIPAL
8 AUG 1961
BHAVANISAGAR
RURAL EXTENSION TRAINING CENTRE

Villagers in Orissa building an approach road to their hamlet through voluntary labour

The community development approach has to be essentially a democratic one as will draw large masses of people as active partners in the task of developing the vast country.

First published February 1961

Copyright © 1961 by Directorate of Extension
Ministry of Food and Agriculture
GOVERNMENT OF INDIA
NEW DELHI

Rs. 7·50 (Inland), $ 3·00 or sh. 21 (Foreign)

Edited by M. G. Kamath, Production Specialist, and issued by the Farm Information Unit, Directorate of Extension, Ministry of Food and Agriculture. New Delhi

Printed in India at the Glasgow Printing Co. Private Ltd., Calcutta

Foreword

In recent years, Extension Education has received much attention in most of the democratic countries of the world. Where properly used, it has proved to be a highly effective process for inducing the rural populations to improve their living standards. Although there is much accumulated experience supported by considerable research on the subject of Extension Education, this material, with the exception of a few books, is widely scattered and not readily available. This is particularly so in India. With India's Community Development—National Extension Service, designed to help 300 million villagers improve their level of living, the need for a volume like **Extension Education in Community Development** has been widely felt. To meet this need, this volume, the first of its kind to be ever produced, has been brought out. Since the rural development programme in India and in many other Asian countries is committed to the use of Extension Education as the activating force, this volume should find wide use among those engaged in the programme.

Extension Education in Community Development has brought together a large body of basic information about educational methods in rural development and suggestions for its use. Besides serving as a textbook for Extension Training Centres and Extension Wings in colleges throughout the country, this book should greatly benefit the teachers in agricultural colleges, and should be of great value to workers in Development Blocks. Every technician and administrator in the Ministries associated with rural development work would greatly benefit by carefully examining and following the procedures and principles enunciated in the book.

The efforts of the staff of the Directorate of Extension of the Ministry of Food and Agriculture which, under the able guidance of Shri J. V. A. Nehemiah, was responsible for this pioneering effort, should be commended. Eighteen authors, highly trained and experienced in their respective fields, have made significant contributions to this volume. Dr. J. Paul Leagans of Cornell University, and presently Ford Foundation Consultant in India,

played an outstanding role in planning, coordinating and editing the various chapters.

I believe this volume will greatly benefit not only the wide range of professional workers in rural development, but also every person interested in promoting the rural development programme through educational means.

New Delhi,
August 15, 1960.

S. K. Patil
Minister for Food and Agriculture
Government of India

Preface

The purpose of this book is to provide information helpful to professional workers engaged in Extension Education for Community Development in improving the effectiveness of their methods in working with rural people. This volume is a pioneering step and has come at an opportune time when Extension Education in India is beginning to find its proper place in the rural development programme. The proper training of personnel in the methods and techniques of helping villagers understand their situation and adopt new practices to improve it is a key problem in any rural development scheme. This training is essential because the success of the programme would depend on the level of professional ability possessed by the personnel responsible for carrying it out.

The publication of this volume is a basic step toward improving the quality of training possessed by community development functionaries. It contains the fundamental concepts, principles, methods, techniques and procedures that constitute essential solutions to the problem of helping people learn to help themselves through education. The process of Extension Education appears to be the best method in democratic societies for inducing rural people to help themselves, using their own resources to the maximum and Government aid to the minimum. This volume, therefore, should be helpful to all those concerned with the task of helping rural people learn better ways of living and of making a living.

Members of the staff of the Training Unit of the Directorate of Extension in the Ministry of Food and Agriculture deserve special recognition for their efforts in producing this book. They include Dr. J. C. Ramchandani, Director ; Shri K. G. Bhandari, Dr. Rajammal P. Devadas and Dr. M. P. Singh, Joint Directors ; Shri G. S. Vidyarthi, Shri G. S. Baweja, Dr. H. W. Butt and Shri S. N. Singh, officers of the Directorate. The Ministry of Community Development and Cooperation gave full encouragement in the production of this volume and three valuable chapters were contributed by Shri B. Mukerjee, former Joint Secretary and Shri A. Prakash,

Commissioner (Panchayats) in that Ministry and Shri B. Rudramoorthy, Principal, Orientation Training and Study Centre, Mysore.

Valuable assistance was rendered by members of the Ford Foundation staff, including Dr. Douglas Ensminger, Representative of the Foundation in India, Dr. J. Paul Leagans, Consultant in Extension Education and Miss Ellen L. Moline, Consultant in Home Science. Miss Sybil Bates and Mr. Robert R. Blake, Advisors, U.S. Technical Cooperation Mission in India, collaborated on a useful chapter dealing with audio-visual aids. In addition to the above, valuable chapters were contributed by Dr. J. B. Chitambar, Principal, Agricultural Institute, Allahabad, and Shri K. Venugopal, Professor of Extension Education, Hyderabad. The laborious task of coordinating the work connected with the book and of assembling the manuscripts was carried out by a committee consisting of Dr. J. C. Ramchandani, Shri K. G. Bhandari and Dr. J. Paul Leagans. Shri M. G. Kamath, Production Specialist, Farm Information Unit, Directorate of Extension, and his staff deserve commendation for the final editing and for making arrangements for the publication of the volume.

It was the cooperation and valuable contribution of all these professional people that made the publication of this book possible. They deserve high commendation for their clear insight into the subjects about which they have written.

I recommend **Extension Education in Community Development** as a professional guide to everyone in India and in other countries engaged in the task of promoting rural development.

K. R. Damle
Secretary
Ministry of Food and Agriculture
Government of India

New Delhi,
August 9, 1960.

Introduction

The idea of this book developed through an evolutionary process from the series of ten All India Work Seminars held at the Osmania University, Hyderabad, from April to August, 1959. These Seminars, attended by nearly 900 Principals and Instructors of Extension Training Centres in India, were focussed on the process of class-room and Extension teaching. The lectures delivered and the group studies made at these Seminars met with a warm response from all the participants, who expressed a keen desire to have the material in the form of a book. It was because of this favourable response that this book has been written. The volume is not intended to be all-comprehensive nor all-inclusive of subjects relating to Community Development. Rather, it is an attempt to emphasise the role of Extension Education as a means of promoting Community Development.

It is anticipated that 50,000 Gram Sevaks and 10,000 Gram Sevikas (Village Level Workers) will be functioning by 1963 in the more than 5,00,000 villages of India. These will be supported by more than 50,000 Block level and higher functionaries. All of these will need initial and periodic refresher training in the processes of Extension Education related to Community Development. These workers will form the link between the village people and the Government for helping them rebuild village life. Upon their ability and skill would depend the success of the programme to bring about technological improvements in agriculture and all-round village development. These functionaries acquire their abilities initially through the training they receive in the various types of specialised training centres. The quality of teaching in these institutions depends on the calibre of the teachers and the methods and techniques used by them to impart training. **Extension Education in Community Development** has been written for use in the training of all categories of staff necessary to man the various positions in India's Community Development—National Extension Service Programme.

The volume is organised into four parts on a somewhat logical basis. Part One is designed to orient readers to the task of rural development in India. It begins with a statement on the role of Extension Education in Community Development and the succeeding chapters deal with the principles and philosophy of Extension Education; the objectives and methods of Community Development; the need for extension training; the role, organisation and administration of Extension Training Centres and the administrative coordination of the programme.

Part Two deals with an analysis of the task and suggests procedures for programme development. Four chapters in this Part, deal respectively with the subjects of finding out people's needs; developing family, village and Block programmes; procedures in programme execution, and the economic, social and cultural factors affecting Extension Education for Community Development.

Part Three is based on the assumption that a useful programme has been developed and that the task at hand is to execute it. This calls for extension teaching. This Part, consisting of nine chapters, begins with a basic statement dealing with the teaching and learning processes and their implications in extension teaching. Next is a chapter giving basic details about extension teaching methods followed in succession by chapters laying out fundamental materials related to the techniques of handling a class; the nature and use of visual aids; syllabus, course outlines and lesson plans; making practicals educational; Extension Education in home science; leadership and group methods in extension, and the communication process.

Part Four deals with related activities and explores in four chapters the problems and procedures related to library in Extension Training Centres; home science in rural development; organisation and training of rural youth and evaluation of training programmes.

Each author, after extensive exploration, has selected certain references which in his judgement contain useful material related to the subject under consideration. These references are listed at the end of each chapter and, for the convenience of readers, are systematically arranged in a summary form at the end of the volume.

The authors have attempted to prepare their respective chapters with the needs of the field worker constantly in mind. The volume is intended to serve as a guide for all those engaged in the task of influencing rural people to accept useful techniques and tc apply them in improving their economic and social well-being.

J. V. A. Nehemiah
Extension Commissioner
Ministry of Food and Agriculture
Government of India

New Delhi,
August 10, 1960.

The Contributors

Bates, (Miss) Sybil	Regional Home Economist, U.S. Technical Cooperation Mission, India.
Baweja, G. S.	Senior Extension Officer, Directorate of Extension, Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Government of India.
Bhandari, K. G.	Joint Director of Extension Training, Directorate of Extension, Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Government of India.
Blake, Robert R.	Communication Media Advisor, Technical Cooperation Mission, India.
Butt, Dr. H. W.	Principal, Extension Education Institute, Directorate of Extension, Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Government of India.
Chitambar, Dr. J. B.	Head of the Extension Department, Agricultural Institute, Allahabad.
Devadas, Dr. (Mrs.) Rajammal P.	Joint Director of Extension Training Directorate of Extension, Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Government of India.
Ensminger, Dr. Douglas	Representative in India, the Ford Foundation.
Leagans, Dr. J. Paul	Professor of Extension Education, Cornell University, U.S.A., Consultant, the Ford Foundation, India.
Moline, (Miss) Ellen L.	Consultant, Home Science, the Ford Foundation, India.
Mukerji, B.	Joint Secretary, Ministry of Finance, Government of India.
Prakash, A.	Commissioner (Panchayats), Ministry of Community Development and Co-operation, Government of India.

Ramchandani, Dr. J. C.	Director of Extension Training, Directorate of Extension, Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Government of India.
Rudramoorthy, B.	Principal, Orientation Training and Study Centre, Mysore, Ministry of Community Development and Co-operation, Government of India.
Singh, Dr. M. P.	Joint Director of Extension Training, Directorate of Extension, Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Government of India.
Singh, S. N.	Rural Sociologist, Extension Education Institute, Directorate of Extension, Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Government of India.
Venugopal, K.	Professor of Extension Education, Agricultural Department, Government of Andhra Pradesh.
Vidyarthi, G. S.	Senior Extension Officer, Directorate of Extension, Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Government of India.

Contents

Page

Part I : **Orientation to the Task**

1. Extension Education for Community Development
J. Paul Leagans 1

2. Principles and Philosophy of Extension Education
H. W. Butt 27

3. Objectives and Methods of Community Development
B. Mukerji 49

4. Need for Extension Training
Douglas Ensminger 58

5. Role, Organisation and Administration of Extension Training Centres
J. C. Ramchandani 66

6. Administrative Coordination and Team Work in Community Development
A. Prakash 77

Part II : **Programme Development**

7. Programme Planning to Meet People's Needs
J. Paul Leagans 83

8. Developing Family, Village and Block Programmes
G. S. Vidyarthi 119

9. Procedures in Programme Execution
B. Rudramoorthy 139

10. Social, Economic and Cultural Factors in Extension Education
J. B. Chitambar 148

Part III : **Extension Teaching**

11. Characteristics of Teaching and Learning in Extension Education
J. Paul Leagans 171

Page

12. Extension Teaching Methods
J. Paul Leagans 195

13. Techniques of Conducting a Class
K. G. Bhandari 245

14. Visual Aids in Extension Teaching
Robert R. Blake and Sybil Bates .. 260

15. Syllabus, Course Outline and Lesson Plan
M. P. Singh 277

16. Making Practicals Educational
G. S. Baweja and K. G. Bhandari .. 294

17. Extension Education in Home Science
Ellen L. Moline 307

18. Leaders and Group Methods in Extension
S. N. Singh 334

19. The Communication Process
J. Paul Leagans 362

Part IV : **Related Activities**

20. The Library in Extension Training Centres
K. Venugopal 393

21. Home Science in Rural Development
Rajammal P. Devadas 398

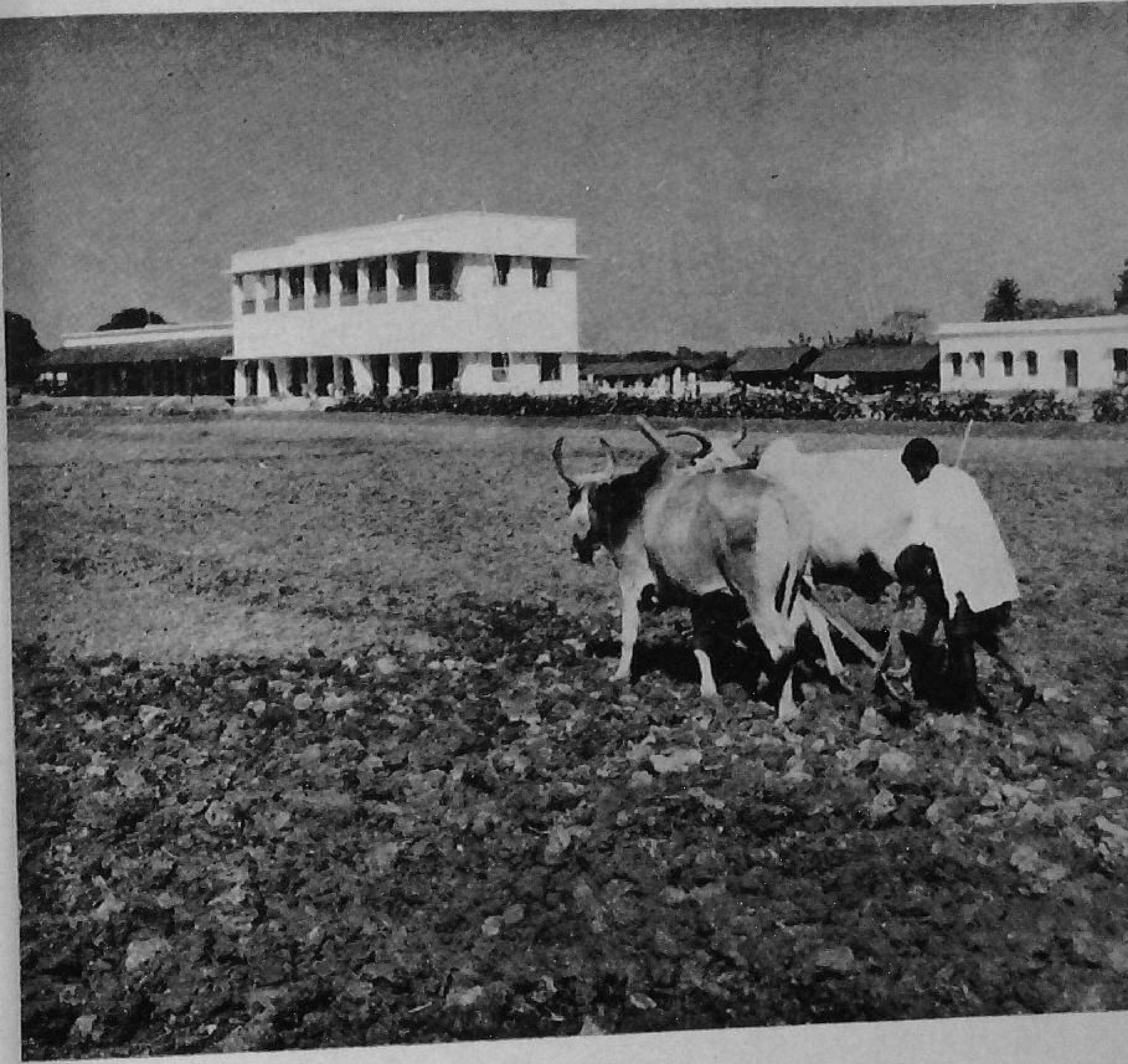
22. Organisation and Training of Rural Youth
G. S. Vidyarthi 409

23. Evaluation of Training Programmes
J. B. Chitambar 426

References 449

PART ONE

ORIENTATION TO THE TASK



A Gram Sevak trainee of the Chinsurah Extension Training Centre in West Bengal practising ploughing. The Centre is seen in the background

Extension Training Centres are the temples of learning for the village level functionaries who ultimately reflect the efforts contributed by these centres.

An Extension Worker in Uttar Pradesh discussing with a farmer the bumper wheat crop the farmer has raised by following improved cultivation methods

Extension makes available to rural people scientific and other factual information, and training and guidance in the application of such information to the solution of problems of agriculture and rural life.

CHAPTER I

Extension Education for Community Development

J. Paul Leagans

It is not man's technology or his physical resources alone but what he does with them that is of transcendent importance to his progress. What man does with his resources depends largely on the nature and extent of society's investment in his educational growth. The importance of the extension of knowledge through educational procedures *versus* the discovery of knowledge through research procedures is not yet fully realised. These facts are being increasingly recognised by educators, scientists and political leaders alike in countries where emphasis is on the development of democratic institutions and the use of democratic methods to attain national objectives. This is particularly so in many newly developing countries of Asia interested in promoting progress among their rural people. Emerging from the acceptance of this idea is the concept of ways to help rural people learn to improve their level of living by aided self-help through education. This concept is commonly expressed by the term Extension Education.

Rural development in democratic societies is not a matter only of plans and statistics, targets and budgets, technology and method, material aid and professional staff, or agencies and organisations to administer them. Rather, it is an effective use of these mechanisms as educational means for changing the mind and actions of people in such ways that they 'help themselves' attain economic and social improvements. Hence the process is one of working *with* people, not *for* them; of helping people become self-reliant, not dependent on others; of making people the central actors in the drama, not stage hands or spectators; in short, helping people by means of education to put useful

knowledge to work for them. This process is the essence of Extension Education.

Means and Ends

Community Development in India and elsewhere has been alternately referred to as a 'programme,' a 'process,' a 'procedure,' a 'method,' a 'movement,' and an 'objective.' Although people differ in the words they choose to express their concept of Community Development, they seem to agree that Extension Education is the activating force. Often it is said that Community Development is the objective and Extension Education the means of attaining it. In India, according to the *Syllabus for Training of Trainers*, "Six years of experience of the programme has confirmed that the methods of Community Development must be those of extension." "The Community Development approach requires a complete change in the mode of functioning of the administrative machinery, in the role it discharges and in the attitude of government functionaries. The change is from the 'Executive' to the 'Extension' role. It is essentially an educational process..."[1] "The Community Development Organisation will from now on function as a Directorate of Extension and Education instead of as a Directorate of Supply and Works."[2] If Community Development is in essence conceived of as an objective and Extension Education as the means for achieving it, then achievement of the ends is dependent on the effective use of the means. In this context, the role of Extension Education in Community Development becomes both clear and significant.

An analysis of rural development programmes in various democratic countries reveals that faith is placed in the extension educational process as the most promising and possibly the only vehicle for involving the rural masses in programmes of development and for teaching them 'how to help themselves' with a minimum of government aid. To educate people in ways of objective and Extension Education as the means of achieving them with new technology and ways of applying it, gain their acceptance of new ideas and promote action in adopting them in agriculture, home-making, and community improvement.

Without a central emphasis on change through Extension Education, rural development programmes could easily drift into a condition of having their major focus on physical and

1. *B. Mukerji*, Kurukshetra, November, 1958, page 323.
2. *S. K. Dey*, Statesman, New Delhi, July 31, 1959.

quantitative achievement, thus overlooking qualitative gains. They could over-emphasise physical activity and they could be motivated largely by the wish for government aid promoted through governmental directives. Without emphasis on Extension Education as the central force, the approach could readily become something of an autocratic reliance on mechanical prescriptions of targets and a bureaucratic insistence on achieving them by autocratic force rather than democratic leadership. What may be called a 'recipe approach' could emerge. If this were permitted, the crusading spirit so necessary among field workers in rural development programmes would be destroyed or would never appear. Such a situation could convert workers into instruments of government and tools of administrators, rather than allow them to be instruments and channels of genuine Extension Education.

People can be led by educational process to make substantial permanent improvements on their farms, in their homes and in their communities. But in free-choice societies, they cannot be driven to do so by governmental directives. Programmes to achieve goals of any kind—economic development, social justice, or democratic growth—without emphasis first on achieving the educational change in people that motivates and trains them to help themselves, cannot in the long run be successful in a democratic social order. Hence, the essential Extension Education role of community development workers must be asserted, for this is the only action that will attain the objectives of Community Development through sound and enduring means.

The Human Element and Education

When technology and educational instruments for disseminating it are available, the key to rural development in a free society is the human element, not material aid. It is the education of the people to do things for themselves and not governmental attempts to do the job for them that make for enduring change. The determinant of success is not merely a programme designed to promote change among rural people, but their response to it.

The central means of rural progress is 'a people's programme with government aid,' and not 'a government programme with people's aid.' The first of these approaches implies aided self-help; the second, doing things for people. The first places importance on people's responsibility; the second on government

responsibility. The first leads to self-reliance; the second to dependence on others. The basic means for attaining the first condition is the education of the people in ways of farm, home and community improvement. To be sound socially, effective economically, permanent physically and enduring educationally change in these areas must emerge from the people's own decision to act, and must be achieved through their own efforts, using their own resources to the maximum and relying on government aid to the minimum.

Advancement along these lines requires careful mobilisation of the resources for promoting rural development and their sharp focus on changing people educationally. For it is this change in people that must always precede changes in their actions when people are free to believe as they choose. According to the *Ford Foundation Annual Report for 1958*, "Education, like peace, has become a world-wide problem, one and indivisible with the well-being and survival of mankind. Today, ignorance is a burden society can no longer afford. Man's future hinges on his ability to master his own mind. The vigour of a nation and its educational level go hand in hand. One great hope is that education, with its power to liberate the mind, will provide not only the tools for scientific advancement but the environment for the fulfilment of man's moral and spiritual nature."

Economic and social problems confronting people and their leaders are largely man-made, either by unwise design or by apathetic default. Whether human problems are man-made or imposed by nature, modern man has with him both the power and the resources to solve them, at least at the minimum level. These are intelligent planning, acceptance of current technology and the application of modern methods through individual and cooperative effort. But these require acceptance of the idea of progress through educational change by both the people and their leaders.

Defined simply, education in any form is the production of changes in human behaviour—changes in what people know, in what they think, in what they can do and in what they actually do. Viewed broadly, education is the most potent force yet discovered for moulding a free society into the desired form. It is the most basic means available in a society for promoting things 'good' or things 'bad.' Guiding it properly and making it effective, therefore, is a high-level responsibility and a vastly complex undertaking. All modern societies place education

at the top, or near the top, in their value system as a means of promoting progress by the people.

The objectives of Community Development and the means created for attaining them assume many different forms among countries and within them. These are dictated by varying circumstances. Forms vary in philosophy, objectives, organisation, content, methodology and in impact on people. The exact type of agency for administering Extension Education for rural development is unimportant so long as it is democratic and effective. Forms may vary, but there is the basic process that remains constant, has universal application and must be followed. There is a core structure that is indivisible and cannot be compromised. This is so because human beings are, by inheritance, basically alike in essential aspects of mind, heart and body. Wherever proper educational approaches have been made it has been found possible to change people in the following four broad areas.

1. *Changes in what people know*—their knowledge of themselves, of their society and of their physical environment.
2. *Changes in what people can do*—their skills, mental and physical.
3. *Changes in what people think and feel*—their attitude toward themselves, toward their society and toward their physical environment.
4. *Changes in what people actually do*—their actions related to factors determining their own welfare.

These are the concern of all education, and the basic criteria by which the success of programmes depending on education must be judged.

When a development programme has progressed, the people exposed to it should be changed in one or more of these four areas. If they have not been changed favourably in any of these directions, the programme has not succeeded.

Man's potential for attainment is yet unknown. To recognise this, one needs only to survey current developments in atomic energy and ballistic missiles. The capacity of man to develop himself through education is one of the most fortunate characteristics of the human race. His ability to improve himself, and the conditions of his environment that hinder or control his progress, are the primary differences between man and the lower species of the animal kingdom. Man's progress, therefore, is

highly dependent upon his education. With appropriate education he does not have to exist continuously in a state of poverty, ignorance and disease. He possesses inherited traits and capacities that potentially can enable him to lift himself and his social order from the depths of these inhuman, unnatural conditions to levels of economic and social well-being in keeping with man's intended status in the universe. He needs only to be encouraged, trained and provided only with those necessities for achievement that he cannot supply himself.

The speed with which man makes economic and social progress, and the extent of attainment in these directions, depend on his mental and physical ability, his determination to improve himself, and the conditions in his environment that encourage, or discourage, his development. The ability of persons, the strength of drive or force generated within them for improvement and the conditions prevailing in their environment vary widely, but there is always scope for improvement. Sometimes the abilities and desires of people for improvement are scarcely manifested in outward behaviour directed at progress. This, however, does not alter the fact that these tendencies exist. Often they are latent, smouldering and unaroused. But this condition is usually the result of custom, tradition and other external forces exerted on man by the environment in which he lives.

To make progress, India's villagers must be helped to loosen and throw off the iron grip of conventionalism and substitute for it modern ways of thinking and doing. Education and training of villagers must uproot tradition and 'unchangeable' forms. They must cast off the stamp of finality that tends to be accepted by villagers as the finished life of man. A tendency to accept the *status quo* to mean the same as the ideal must be challenged and give way to a state of dissatisfaction with things as they are. This condition is the first requisite for progress in a democratic system in which choices of the individual determine his destiny rather than choices of autocratic leaders.

The new India is committed to a policy of freedom for the individual within a system of controls. This system recognises the necessity of and provides the opportunity for the education of the individual—the primary tool with which he can improve his economic and social status. Villagers must, therefore, learn the way of improving their land, their home, their family and their community. They must gain the skill and understanding necessary to apply these measures for their own benefit. They must

develop ability and the will to make their own decisions and take initiative in implementing them. They must shed the shackles clamped on them by outmoded tradition and unrealistic values and substitute for them the behaviour necessary for survival, as well as that required for attainments beyond the minimal biological necessities.

There is present today in India the technical know-how for taking great strides forward, the leadership to guide its application, the structural organisation and the staff to manage the requisites of progress. The great problem, therefore, is to get the technology effectively applied. For, in this lies the solution to India's major rural problems. Each individual villager ultimately must make the application of technology to his own problems, in his own situation and in his own way. He must be helped to learn how to put this knowledge to work for him. He must be stimulated to action in ways so sound that he will harvest satisfaction from his new ways of doing things and of living. So then it is the human element, not the lack of technology nor the machinery for its distribution, that is blocking the road to progress in rural India.

Progress is not made by doing more of the same in the same way, but by substituting for the old practice a new and more rewarding one. People can always be stimulated to improve themselves and their living conditions through educational approaches. In this fact lies the greatness and potential of Indian villagers. They can and will help themselves when given the opportunity under conditions of freedom, encouragement, and educational leadership.

Basic Elements in Extension Education

Three basic elements lie at the core of Extension Education for Community Development, which the extension educator must always deal with as they constitute the key to his success at influencing people. These elements are :

1. Man himself—physiological and psychological.
2. Man's environment—physical, economic, and social.
3. Man-created devices for improving his welfare.

A thorough acquaintance with each of these elements and skill in dealing with them is vital to the success of every extension worker. This is so because :

1. One's knowledge and perception of inner forces that motivate men—biological, physiological and

highly dependent upon his education. With appropriate education he does not have to exist continuously in a state of poverty, ignorance and disease. He possesses inherited traits and capacities that potentially can enable him to lift himself and his social order from the depths of these inhuman, unnatural conditions to levels of economic and social well-being in keeping with man's intended status in the universe. He needs only to be encouraged, trained and provided only with those necessities for achievement that he cannot supply himself.

The speed with which man makes economic and social progress, and the extent of attainment in these directions, depend on his mental and physical ability, his determination to improve himself, and the conditions in his environment that encourage, or discourage, his development. The ability of persons, the strength of drive or force generated within them for improvement and the conditions prevailing in their environment vary widely, but there is always scope for improvement. Sometimes the abilities and desires of people for improvement are scarcely manifested in outward behaviour directed at progress. This, however, does not alter the fact that these tendencies exist. Often they are latent, smouldering and unaroused. But this condition is usually the result of custom, tradition and other external forces exerted on man by the environment in which he lives.

To make progress, India's villagers must be helped to loosen and throw off the iron grip of conventionalism and substitute for it modern ways of thinking and doing. Education and training of villagers must uproot tradition and 'unchangeable' forms. They must cast off the stamp of finality that tends to be accepted by villagers as the finished life of man. A tendency to accept the *status quo* to mean the same as the ideal must be challenged and give way to a state of dissatisfaction with things as they are. This condition is the first requisite for progress in a democratic system in which choices of the individual determine his destiny rather than choices of autocratic leaders.

The new India is committed to a policy of freedom for the individual within a system of controls. This system recognises the necessity of and provides the opportunity for the education of the individual—the primary tool with which he can improve his economic and social status. Villagers must, therefore, learn the way of improving their land, their home, their family and their community. They must gain the skill and understanding necessary to apply these measures for their own benefit. They must

develop ability and the will to make their own decisions and take initiative in implementing them. They must shed the shackles clamped on them by outmoded tradition and unrealistic values and substitute for them the behaviour necessary for survival, as well as that required for attainments beyond the minimal biological necessities.

There is present today in India the technical know-how for taking great strides forward, the leadership to guide its application, the structural organisation and the staff to manage the requisites of progress. The great problem, therefore, is to get the technology effectively applied. For, in this lies the solution to India's major rural problems. Each individual villager ultimately must make the application of technology to his own problems, in his own situation and in his own way. He must be helped to learn how to put this knowledge to work for him. He must be stimulated to action in ways so sound that he will harvest satisfaction from his new ways of doing things and of living. So then it is the human element, not the lack of technology nor the machinery for its distribution, that is blocking the road to progress in rural India.

Progress is not made by doing more of the same in the same way, but by substituting for the old practice a new and more rewarding one. People can always be stimulated to improve themselves and their living conditions through educational approaches. In this fact lies the greatness and potential of Indian villagers. They can and will help themselves when given the opportunity under conditions of freedom, encouragement, and educational leadership.

Basic Elements in Extension Education

Three basic elements lie at the core of Extension Education for Community Development, which the extension educator must always deal with as they constitute the key to his success at influencing people. These elements are:

1. Man himself—physiological and psychological.
2. Man's environment—physical, economic, and social.
3. Man-created devices for improving his welfare.

A thorough acquaintance with each of these elements and skill in dealing with them is vital to the success of every extension worker. This is so because:

1. One's knowledge and perception of inner forces that motivate men—biological, physiological and

psychological, inherited and shaped by environment—largely determine one's attitude and the manner of approach toward the learners.

2. One's knowledge and perception of external forces that motivate men—physical, economic, and social, derived from environment and imposed from without—largely determine the direction of change one decides upon and the nature of agencies or institutions one attempts to create for promoting the change.
3. One's knowledge and perception, and skill in the use of external forces—technology, means of communication, institutions, etc., created by man to help himself attain a satisfactory adjustment between internal and environmental forces—largely determine one's effectiveness as a professional leader in helping people use these instruments to attain the desirable economic and social change.

These principles constitute the central orientation of the programme to train extension personnel for Community Development and provide a basic guide for determining their content.

1. A View of Man Himself

To make the image of man as realistic as possible, let him be viewed as a typical Indian villager. In this role he may also represent numerous other village people in the newly developing countries of Asia. It should be kept sharply in mind that villagers are the central concern of programmes for rural development. They are the persons for whom such programmes are created and maintained. Changes that villagers make in their ways of thinking and of acting are the criteria by which rural development programmes ultimately must be judged. How should extension workers view the status, role and potential of villagers?

Villagers should be viewed as individual human personalities. Village people must be seen as possessing many inherited traits, tendencies and capacities that create forces which shape what they think, what they do and how they do it. They must be recognised as independent units in a social and economic system. They must be viewed as a power influencing this system and in turn being influenced by it. They must be seen as constantly interacting with the forces in their environment. They must be visualised as possessing a personality, the product of inherited

traits, which is shaped by forces in the environment in which they exist. In his book, *Slavery and Freedom,* Nicolas Bardyaev says: "Man, the only man known to biology and to sociology, man as a natural being and a social being, is the offspring of the world and of the processes which take place in the world. But personality, man as a person, is not a child of the world, his is of another origin...Personality is a break-through, a breaking in upon this world; it is the introduction of something new...Man is a personality not by nature but by spirit." This human personality should be recognised as one highly capable of independent action as well as group action.

Villagers should be viewed as possessing extensive mental power. Man's mental system is the most marvellous and, at the same time, the most complex mechanism in the universe. Even today its working is among the greatest mysteries. Man has solved the complexities of sending missiles into cosmic space and around the world in a hundred minutes. He knows how to reduce nations to shambles. But many aspects of the human mind still defy his exploration—they remain among nature's complex arts not yet fully discovered. The mind of the typical Indian villager, although sometimes illiterate and ignorant, is not a dull mind. His native intelligence no doubt compares favourably with that of people in any country. He must be viewed, therefore, as having the mental capacity to learn, think, reason, understand, remember, forget, judge, decide, and to exercise other mental abilities. The villager's mind should be recognised as the central system that dictates and controls his behaviours. Those who would promote rural development by means of Extension Education should recognise and constantly remember that changes in the mind of man must always precede changes in the actions of his hands.

Villagers should be viewed as possessing emotional powers. These are frequently mentioned figuratively as 'matters of the heart.' Some important aspects of man's emotional powers are:

(a) *Capacity to feel various emotions.* These include love, hate, confidence, fear, sadness, happiness, resistance, and acceptance. All people experience these emotions. They are expressions of attitude. Attitudes, simply defined, are tendencies to accept or reject conditions and things. Attitude is probably the most potent force in determining man's behaviour when he is free to act as he chooses. Extension Education, therefore,

must aim at changing people's attitudes toward various aspects of community development programmes. Emotions are powerful determinants of human behaviour.

(b) *Desire to resist many acts and conditions.* These include innovation, imposition, poverty, disease, ignorance, strangeness, scorn, force, unfriendliness. An understanding of the role of these common desires in determining people's behaviour is crucial to effective extension educational approaches.

(c) *Desire to improve many things.* Man desires to improve his knowledge, skills, food, clothing, health, home, family, economic status, creativeness, friendship, independence, leadership, usefulness and a number of other things and conditions. These desires tend to be common to all people.

Villagers should be viewed as possessing great potential physical skill. This ability is not only the result of man's physical make-up, but of his ability to learn to apply his physical skill effectively. Potentially, the physical skill that man is capable of developing is extensive. To become convinced, one needs only to observe the performance of a great athlete, a great musician, a great surgeon, or a great painter.

In summary, villagers must be viewed as possessing an extensive capacity for developing themselves and shaping their environment. All of the foregoing characteristics of man are the result of his inheritance, modified and shaped by environment. The fact that they are sometimes not manifest in outward behaviour aimed at improvement does not alter the fact that they exist. Often they are latent, smouldering and unaroused as a result of experience with external forces; but they can always be stimulated under proper conditions. In this fact lies the greatness of man. In this fact lies the potential of the Indian villager and others like him. He can 'help himself' under conditions of freedom, encouragement, leadership and educational opportunity, when these are properly provided and directed.

Man then is one element—the key element—in the extension educational process. He should be looked upon as a human personality, and constituting the most important unit of a democratic society. He is endowed by nature with great powers to change himself mentally, and his environment socially and physically. He is endowed by inheritance with the ability to

learn new knowledge, new attitudes, new skills, and new ways of doing things. He has the ability to reason, judge, love and hate. He has the ability to make decisions for himself when given the proper information and opportunity. He is the product of his biological inheritance as shaped by his physical, economic, and cultural environment, past and present. He has the ability to exert physical and mental power over the aspects of his environment he choose to change. This is the central resource that programmes of rural development must capture and guide.

2. Man's Environment

Every human being exists within an environment. Man is constantly surrounded by other human beings, physical items, social and cultural norms and economic conditions. Environmental forces exert constant influence over man's behaviour and in turn are influenced by him. He is rarely in a position to act just as he chooses because he is a social being who does not wish to live alone. Consequently, he has concern for the elements in his environment both from the stand-point of his potential contribution to them and from the stand-point of what they may contribute to his own social and economic welfare.

Items making up the environment of people vary both in form and in degree of favourableness or unfavourableness to progress. These variations stem from the past and present culture and from natural physical endowments. The forces imposed on man by his environment that hinder or control his progress are those with which he must be concerned. Regardless of his economic and social conditions, or of his ability, there are usually external forces in his environment which man must learn to deal with and overcome if he is to survive and progress.

What are some of the external forces facing the typical Indian villager today? Objectives of the Community Development Programme and literature related to it reveal the following among the major environmental conditions bearing on villagers:

Low agricultural production
Inadequate food supplies
Low per capita income
Poor housing and home amenities
Insanitary conditions
Poor health
Under-employment

Poor educational opportunity
Overpopulation
Isolation
Unsatisfactory tenure system
Inadequate water resources and distribution of water
Unsystematic credit system
Inefficient implements and farming practices
Adherence to out-moded custom and tradition

These are some of the major forces controlling the behaviour of Indian villagers today. Many of them are imposed by nature, but, either by design or by default, many are man-made. Some of them are easily modified or overcome; others pose difficult problems. Some look big, dark and dangerous to the Indian villager. Because of past experience, or the lack of it, he is slow in attacking them. But they serve to his economic, physical and social disadvantage, and must be modified, overcome, or adjusted to his needs if he is to progress.

Just as there are internal forces originating from man's inheritance that tend to determine his behaviour, there are external forces originating from conditions in his environment that tend to control what he does and how he does it. The manner and speed with which he deals with them will largely determine his status in the future.

3. Man-created Devices to Serve Man

Historically, societies have tended to progress economically and socially very slowly, if at all, until institutions and forces were created by man himself and used for promoting his own welfare. India before Independence was an example of this. In contrast, societies with effective man-created agents of change have tended to progress quite rapidly. For example, India since Independence and, the rural areas particularly since the launching of the Community Development—National Extension Service Programme in 1952.

Progressively, man has learned that to close the gap between his internal desires and capacities and external forces imposed by his environment he needs the stimulus, guidance, and use of man-created institutions—educational, technological, physical, economic, social, administrative and religious—all designed to give him an advantage over his environment. Indeed, the nature and use of these man-created instruments for social order and economic change parallel, if they do not characterise, man's

development from prehistoric times to the present. "The dynamic quality of a Culture is derived from a continuous re-learning in response to external stimuli."[1]

But it was not until the beginning of the industrial revolution in the eighteenth century, the emergence of the scientific age in the nineteenth century and the inauguration of the atomic era in the present century that man placed instruments at his disposal for attacking forces in his environment with phenomenal effect and rapidity. His ability to create technology based on science, related both to himself and to factors in his environment, and to create instruments for applying this technology has closely paralleled his advancement. Wherever man has done a good job of creating and applying new knowledge and instruments to his problems he has progressed rapidly; where he has done a poor job his progress has been slow.

It appears from these facts that man in democratic societies must create agencies and institutions to accelerate his development. These institutions should aim at the single purpose of bringing external stimuli to bear on the people through educational means that activate their smouldering powers and guide the aroused natural internal forces in an attack on needed economic and social improvements.

So it is both proper and necessary for a developing country like India to create appropriate agencies for introducing and stimulating change in its rural people and the conditions in which they live. The basic role, indeed the very justification for the existence of the community development scheme, therefore, is to bring external stimuli to bear on the natural internal capacities of rural people in ways that motivate and help them make desirable changes in farming, in home-making and in establishing needed community institutions.

What are some of the man-created external stimuli that can and are being brought to bear on Indian villagers by the National Extension Service—the newly created agency to promote their welfare? Some of the important ones are:

Trained personnel
Scientific knowledge
Improved production tools
Improved production materials and methods

1. *R. Balkrishna*, Cultural Reorientations in Economic Development. Bulletin of the Institute of Traditional Cultures, University of Madras—UNESCO, Madras, 1956.

Demonstrated improvements of many kinds
Opportunity to cooperate
Special committees at work
Expanded communication media
Government aid in money and materials
Conditions for self-help
Freedom and encouragement.

These items are only a few of the opportunities and influences provided by the programme. As a whole, they are new forces in the universe of the typical Indian villager. They are intended to help him harmonise forces inherited with those imposed by his environment. So there has now been created in India both the agency and the means of helping villagers overcome forces that for generations have held their economic and social position at a level among the lowest in the world. Properly used, these devices can put into action the inherent powers of the people in the direction of real progress. The job done well can create a chain reaction that, in time, can result in better people living in nicer homes on more productive land in more desirable villages throughout India.

To communicate these man-created forces to the villagers and get them to apply the same requires Extension Education. With this tool in hand, the architects and current leaders of the programme can show the villagers the way to desirable progress and provide aided self-help through education that is useful to them. This route leads to higher levels of living and away from the rough, troublesome, narrow and uncertain path villagers have travelled for centuries, because no others were available to them. The road of aided self-help through Extension Education is a solid all-weather road to economic and social progress that increasingly can free villagers to behave as they choose, and to participate realistically in determining their own destiny.

The three basic elements then, with which extension workers must deal are: 1) man himself; 2) man's environment; 3) man-created devices for his own improvement. Some of the characteristics of these elements offer light and opportunity; some cast deep shadows. Some of them can be dealt with easily; others require much effort and patience. Some of them are in conflict with one another; others are complementary. Some of them whisper messages to the consciousness of the villager urging him to stay as he is, do as he is now doing, resist innovation and maintain a *status quo*. Others among them urge him to change

his way of thinking and doing, break loose from the shackles imposed by outmoded custom and tradition, take advantage of new opportunities to help himself, adopt innovations in ways of living and of making a living, and be progressive.

The solution to this conflict lies in the proper education of the villagers. Here is the central problem confronting extension educators pin-pointed. Meeting the challenge requires everyone engaged in the programme to understand clearly the objective reality of the three basic elements and gain high professional skill in dealing with them. Extension workers must clearly see the fundamental role that each element plays and its relationship to others in shaping the nature and effectiveness of the programme. For, one's perception of the inner forces, derived from inheritance, that motivate people will largely determine one's attitude toward the villagers and towards how to approach them. One's perception of the external forces derived from people's environment that is imposed on them from the outside will largely determine the objectives of the programmes one creates, or the direction of change one decides upon. One's perception of the external forces created by people themselves to help attain harmony between internal and external forces will largely determine one's effectiveness in the use of these instruments to promote a desirable economic and social change. These then are the tools of the trade of extension educators for Community Development. To master them is a great professional challenge.

Relationship of the Elements

In the previous section, the three basic elements of Extension Education for Community Development were identified and characterised along with some indications of their relationship. It will be useful now to further examine their relationship to each other and to the community development process.

Elements one and two—man and his environment—are opponents that have battled throughout the history of civilised man. Indeed, the history of man's progress, and the lack of it, is at the same time the history of his struggle for control over forces in his environment which hindered his progress, or those which could be used to advance it. Thus a gap of some proportion nearly always exists between what man *is* and aspires *to be* and the *external forces* confronting him that exert control over his status and aspirations.

The picture as it relates to the typical Indian villager can be made clear by contrasting some of the items previously mentioned.

Villagers desire to improve these:	*Villagers must overcome these*
Knowledge	Low education
Skills	Narrow range of skills
Food	Inadequate food supplies
Level of production	Low agricultural production
Health	Poor health
Home	Poor housing and amenities
Family	Overpopulation
Economic status	Low per capita income
Creativeness	Outmoded custom and tradition

Studies of man and societies reveal that human beings are usually out of adjustment to some extent with the forces in their environment. It may be assumed that not to be in this position constitutes Utopia. But Utopias are rarely realised, if ever. Most people are not in complete harmony with all the external forces—human, social, physical, economic, moral—which they must take into account in determining their own destiny. So, man always has problems. Usually, there is some conflict between the internal forces represented by his own feelings, needs, desires, capacity, and the external forces with which he must deal. This being so, man everywhere is in a constant state of attempting to create and maintain a satisfying adjustment between the internal forces he inherited as a human being and the external forces imposed on him by his environment, both natural and man-made.

To the extent that man's inner forces are out of harmony with the external forces, he has needs. Indeed, this is the primary source from which people's needs emerge. Man's needs then are represented by the *gap* existing between *what is* and *should not be,* and *what should* and *can be* in his situation. Hence, there is always a gap of some magnitude between what man *desires* and *is* in his situation and what he *should* and *could be*. So, man's attempt to narrow down or close the gap between his inner drives and the conditions imposed by his environment that hinder or control his progress represent, in true form, his real struggle for survival, and for improvement economically, socially, aesthetically and morally.

The nature of items between which a gap exists, and the width of this gap constitute the criterion by which the degree of development of a society may be judged. The difference—economic, social, aesthetic, moral—between what man *is* and the conditions in which he lives, and what these *should* and *could be,* as judged by a given set of economic and social norms and resources, reflects the degree of civilisation attained by man and his social order. For example, if his level of education, food supply, health, home conditions and the like are low compared to what they should and could be, man himself and his living conditions offer scope for improvement. In advanced societies the gaps are fewer and narrower ; in backward societies they are more numerous and wider.

To progress, the gap between man's economic and social status and what it should be must gradually be narrowed. Indeed, this is the way progress is made. To close the gap is to raise the level of living of Indian villagers. To close the gap requires change. Change is the only way to overcome forces now determining the economic and social position of Indian villagers. Change in some form is inevitable. It will surely take place in the people and in their conditions of living. But left alone, the question arises : What kind of change, how much and how fast will it take place ? Change must proceed in desirable directions and at proper speeds. Professional leaders should be aware that progress means change, but all change does not necessarily mean progress. It is change in predetermined desirable directions that makes for maximum achievement. Change being inevitable, it must be harmonised with progressive concepts, focussed and guided in useful directions.

Can man learn to control the environment in which he lives and cause it to serve him effectively ? To do this he must first understand it. This is the great challenge before Indian villagers and extension educators who attempt to help them.

This is where the third element—man-created devices for promoting his own welfare—comes into direct relationship with the other two. Its central role is one of an arbitrator, of a neutralising agent, that puts tools into man's hands which enable him to deal more effectively with himself and with forces imposed by his environment. These tools include useful technology, other forms of aided self-help and educational guidance that influences people to reject outmoded ways of thinking and doing and to

adopt progressive ways of behaving that lead to economic and social progress.

To help villagers close the gap, then, is the central objective of India's National Extension Service agency and the function of its many resources for improving village conditions. This agency is a symbol of the concern of government leaders for improving village life. It is India's man-created device for helping her millions of village people close the gap existing for centuries between their actual living conditions and the standards specified by the objectives of this vast nation-wide programme of aided self-help through education.

Aided self-help through Extension Education is the controlling force in the programme. For, it is the villager's behaviour that must be changed since he alone can make the needed changes on his land, in his home and in his community. This requires change in what he knows, in what he believes, in what he can do, and in what he actually does. These crucial changes can only result through proper Extension Education that leads villagers to adopt new ways of life. "The ultimate purpose of any reordering of life is to attain better living conditions, and if in reaching it a few vestiges of an ancient civilisation are sacrificed, there need be no regret on sentimental grounds."[1]

People everywhere tend to be conservative. Rural people in particular tend to be slow to change. They tend to resist innovation, at least passively. They like what they are used to. They tend to "hold tenaciously to their established modes of behaviour as they give meaning and value to their life."[2] Sometimes this protects them from cheap and unprofitable innovations. But sometimes it leads them to a blind resistance to useful change. Facing such opposition, extension workers should take courage from the fact that the great innovators in history, and in our time, met with unreasoning opposition, even from those who posed as leaders.

To close the gap, then, between the villagers' mode of life and what it ought to be, is the true objective of the extension worker and his man-made resources. His great challenge is to move boldly, but wisely, to the task and become an important force in helping Indian villagers shape the order of things to come that affect them and their nation.

1. *R. Balkrishna, op. cit.*
2. *Ibid.*

Personnel for the Task

To promote Community Development requires front-line workers who can effectively advise primary groups at the village level and provide supporting services from higher levels. In organised programmes of rural development, like India's National Extension Service—Community Projects Programme, professional workers constitute the connecting link between the people and the institutions created to advance economic and social change. Upon the character, quality, philosophy, training and skill of these workers largely rests the success of the programme. The quality of personnel and their training is the most potent force in any institution and, consequently, the most important element to be dealt with properly and guided wisely. Regardless of the form or purpose of public programmes they cannot succeed beyond the level of professional quality of the people who carry them on. Hence, the success or failure of programmes for promoting change lies in the hands of the personnel manning them and will be determined by their ability. For these reasons, proper selection and training on a continuous basis of these functionaries must be recognised as the heart and nerve centre of the entire scheme.

The central action required of Block and village level extension workers is to motivate people and communities to want desirable change and to take proper action to attain it. This requires methodology consisting of a synthesis of experience in human relations, appropriate technical knowledge, scientific spirit, skill in the methods of Extension Education, faith in the ability of people to learn to help themselves and a keen sense of mission.

A good guide for extension workers is to approach village people in humility but with confidence, and to size up their social, economic, political and religious situation before attempting to advance suggestions for progressive action. For, whatever their abilities may be, extension workers cannot claim to be all-wise. They should be able always, however, to use methods of consultation and negotiation and skill in working with people that help in their search for direction and in moving forward along useful lines, using their own resources to the maximum and government aid to the minimum.

Extension workers should always be alert to the fact that villagers are endowed with the internal desire to improve their level of living and have the ability to do so. Hence, their greatest

need is to be shown the path clearly and convincingly, to be provided with the necessary resources they cannot have themselves, and to be helped to gain the knowledge, the skill, and the confidence necessary for making needed innovations in ways of living and of making a living. Community Development is clearly an educational process. According to the United Nations' publication *Study on the General Content of Training for Community Development*. "The essential core of training for any community development worker at any level, therefore, will be the general content in the total equipment for understanding extension work in any substantial field and for working with people in a community." A few simple guides are basic and should be kept clearly in mind by community development workers at all levels. These include :

1. Respect for the individuals who are to be helped.
2. Sympathy for people's problems as they see them.
3. Willingness to work at people's pace without over-exerting pressure for the acceptance of decisions made arbitrarily.
4. Ability in relating new knowledge and ideas to people's interests and needs.
5. Actively engaging people in the learning process.
6. Providing opportunities for the practical application of what has been learned.

All of these are attributes of an effective extension educator for Community Development. If, then, governments in free-choice societies hope to carry the people along with them in national programmes for economic and social improvement, personnel for the task must be well trained in appropriate technology, in the extension educational process for disseminating it, and in the skills of good human relations. The training must be *change-oriented*. Personnel that can perform effectively in these areas are as precious as jewels.

Summary of Major Elements in India's Community Development Process

The principle of aided self-help through education lies at the core of India's rural development scheme. The form and process for applying this principle is the essence of the National Extension Service agency. A systematic analysis of the nature and structure of this institution, recently created in India for promoting rural progress, reveals at least eleven primary elements. It is essential

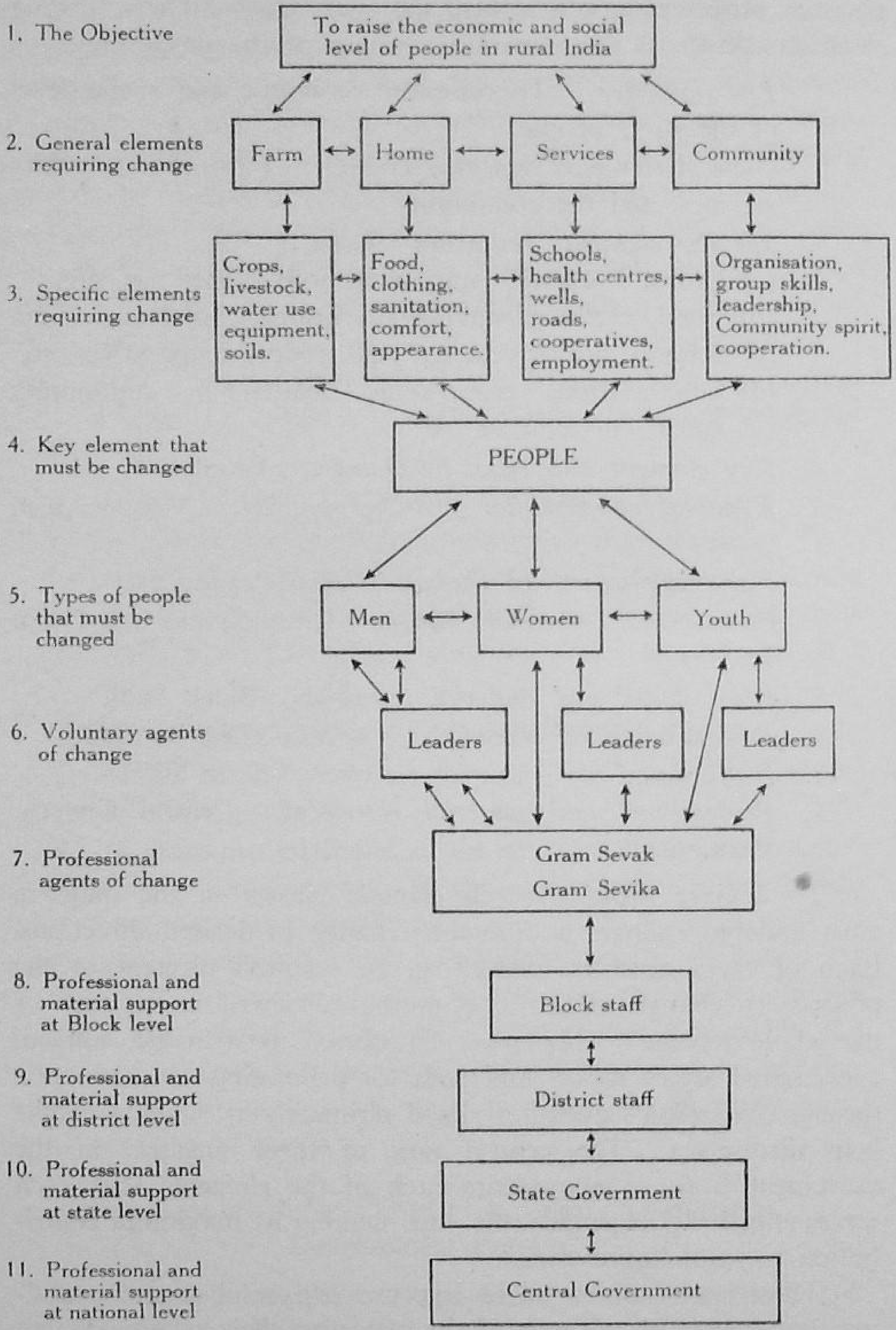
for the success of the total movement that each of these elements plays its proper role, and toward the right goals. The following elements constitute the foundation stones of the programme.

1. *The objective :* To raise the economic and social level of the rural people.
2. *General elements requiring change :* Farm, home, public services, and the community.
3. *Specific elements requiring change :*
   (a) Crops, livestock, equipment, soils, water use, etc.
   (b) Food, clothing, sanitation, comfort, appearance, etc.
   (c) Schools, health centres, wells, roads, cooperatives, etc.
   (d) Organisation, group-skills, leadership, community spirit, cooperation, etc.
4. *Key element that must be changed :* People.
5. *Types of peoples that must be changed :* Men, women, youth.
6. *Voluntary agents of change :* Local leaders.
7. *Professional agents of change :* Gram Sevaks and Gram Sevikas.
8. *Professional and material resources :* Block Staff.
9. *Professional and material resources :* District Staff.
10. *Professional and material resources :* State Staff.
11. *Professional and material resources :* Central Government.

To achieve progress, each element shown in the diagram must undergo change, or influence change in desired directions. Each of them must be viewed as an essential element in the process of change. Each one must be viewed as a part of the whole scheme. They must be viewed as a single, unified, coordinated set of means and ends for promoting rural progress through Extension Education aimed ultimately at 'helping people help themselves.' The central task of those engaged in the movement is to so manipulate each of the elements that each serves effectively its proper role, thus making its maximum contribution to rural improvement.

There are a number of basic principles useful in understanding the proper role of each of the elements, their relationship to one another and to the whole. These principles, when properly understood by those responsible for the programme can serve as highly useful guides to daily activity. Some of the major principles lying at the core of the National Extension Service

*** Diagram showing the major elements and their relationship in India's Community Development Agency**



All of these elements working as a single unified, coordinated force to promote rural progress through extension education aimed at helping people help themselves can create a new rural India.

* This is not an official flow chart, or a statement of all important elements, but rather an attempt to identify major means and ends and show their functional relationship.

agency as an instrument for promoting economic and social progress in rural India are the following :

1. To make progress toward the central objective, elements 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 must undergo change. The change must be :
   (a) felt by people to be important ;
   (b) significant economically, socially or aesthetically to a relatively large number of people ;
   (c) related to the primary needs of the village as a community and to the individuals who form the community.
2. Changes in elements 2 and 3 must be kept in reasonable balance ; that is, they must be brought about, to some degree, simultaneously.
3. People must first undergo change because :
   (a) it is the people who must make the changes in farming, home-making, health, community, etc., that contribute to rural improvement ;
   (b) change in people, educationally, is pre-requisite to the attainment of other changes in a free society ;
   (c) it must be always realised that changes in the mind and heart of people come before changes are made in the actions of their hands.
4. The influence of change in elements 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 are inseparably inter-related horizontally.
5. All the elements, 1 to 11 inclusive, are inseparably inter-related perpendicularly. Thus in the process of change, each element influences all others and, in turn, is influenced by them.
6. The voluntary agents of change, who constitute element 6, must be properly selected, trained and used to make them more than a paper operation or wishful thinking, and the following points should be taken into consideration for this purpose.
   (a) This is the primary responsibility of the Gram Sevak and the Gram Sevika with support from all other personnel.
   (b) The role expectancy of leaders must be carefully determined and adhered to.
   (c) The relationship between professional workers and voluntary leaders must be a cooperative and continuing one of mutual assistance and joint responsibility.

(d) Local leadership is potentialy a great human resource for promoting change in a democratic society.

(e) Mobilising, developing and properly utilising voluntary leadership, is a highly complex process of human relations that must be carefully applied and worked at constantly.

7. Element No. 7, the Gram Sevak and Gram Sevika who are the primary professional agents of change must assume responsibility for all professional leadership and joint responsibility with the people for the success of the programme at the local level.

They must be servants, educators and professional leaders of the people—not merely chore-boys for the administrators of the programme.

The desirability of change as a way of progress and the significance of specific changes aimed at must be indelibly stamped on their minds and hearts.

They must derive satisfaction from seeing change take place.

8. Elements 8, 9, 10, and 11, constituting primary professional and material support to the Village Level Workers, must view their major function as one of promoting the effectiveness of the V.L.W. with the villagers.

This is their central justification for existence.

The ultimate success of the programme will be commensurate with the success achieved by the V.L.W. ;

(1) in educating the people on various aspects of rural development,

(2) in helping them use effectively their own resources,

(3) in helping the people use effectively the resources available with the Block and the district administration, and with the State and Central Government.

The Gram Sevak is the key person in the entire system. This is so because he is in closest contact with people and, hence, is in a position to open the doors to progress—and to close them also, of his performance is poor.

9. Each of the eleven elements must be viewed as having a highly significant place in the entire national rural development scheme. They should be viewed as one

package' with each part a significant one and inseparably inter-related to the whole.

The problem is to get the technology of rural development applied effectively in the villages. For, in this lies the solution to India's rural needs. In this process each villager must ultimately apply the technology to his own problems, in his own situation, with his own resources, and in his own way. Professional leaders have the organisation, responsibility, and opportunity to help Indian villagers put useful knowledge to work for them.

Conclusion

Three basic elements lie at the core of Extension Education for Community Development. Everyone engaged in programmes of rural development should clearly understand these. They are : (1) man himself, (2) man's environment, and (3) man-created forces for his improvement. People are constantly in a state of trying to create and maintain a satisfying balance between elements 1 and 2. The third, in the form of the National Extension Service—Community Projects Programme in India, is designed to help people make desirable adjustments between elements 1 and 2. It is maintained for the single purpose of helping rural people in India's 550,000 villages attain a more satisfying adjustment between internal stimuli they inherited as human beings and external forces imposed by their environment which they must modify in order to attain a more satisfying way of life. The methods by which this adjustment must be made in a free society are educational.

Technical know-how is now available for taking great strides forward in rural India. It is the human element, therefore, that is today largely controlling progress. The key to rural development then, lies in the mind, heart and hands of the people and those of their professional leaders. It is the people who must release the lock and swing open the door to progress ; it is their professional leaders who must lead them, stimulate them, teach them and show them tow to do so. The extent to which professional people manning the Community Development Programme gain the knowledge and understanding of the role of Extension Education and skill in its use will ultimately determine their success and that of the people in utilising the available human and material resources for rebuilding Indian village life.

Resources are available to help people progress and shape the character of things to come in rural India—the power is motivated human ability, the method is Extension Education, the content is technology, the connecting link is professional leadership. Effective development and utilisation of these central forces for rural progress in free-choice societies may be expected to result in a more satisfying life for all the people.

Selected References

Bulletin of the Institute of Traditional Cultures. University of Madras—UNESCO, Madras, 1956.

Community Development in India. V. T. Krishnamachari, Publications Division, Government of India, New Delhi, 1958.

Community Development Review. International Cooperation Administration, Washington, D.C.

Fundamental and Adult Education. A Quarterly Bulletin, UNESCO, Paris.

Human Cycle. Sri Aurobindo, Sri Aurobindo Ashram Press, pondicherry, 1959.

India's Changing Villages. S. C. Dube, Routledge and Kegan Paul Ltd., London, 1958.

Methods of Agricultural Extension. Agricultural University of Wageningen, The Netherlands, 1953.

Report of the Team for the Study of Community Projects and National Extension Service. Vol. III (Parts I and II), Committee on Plan Projects, Government of India, New Delhi, 1957.

Report on India's Food Crisis and Steps to Meet It. Agricultural Production Team Sponsored by the Ford Foundation, Ministry of Food and Agriculture and Ministry of Community Development and Cooperation, Government of India, New Delhi, Part III, Chapter VI, 1959.

Second Five Year Plan. Planning Commission, Government of India, New Delhi, Chapter VI, 1956.

Seminar Papers. Department of Economics, University of Madras, Madras, 1956-57.

Study on the General Content of Training for Community Development. United Nations' Bureau of Cultural Affairs, 1959.

Syllabus for Training of Trainers. Ministry of Community Development and Cooperation, Government of India, New Delhi, 1958.

What Man May Be—The Human Side of Science. George Russell Harrison, William Morrow & Co., New York, 1956.

CHAPTER II

PRINCIPLES AND PHILOSOPHY OF EXTENSION EDUCATION

Herbert W. Butt

TO MANY, PHILOSOPHY is a subject that deals with difficult and abstract concepts meant to be studied at school. A few names of great philosophers stand out in history, but they too, sometimes, appear remote from the everyday world. Occasionally, a patient man, or one who accepts his fate with resignation, is referred to as having a philosophical attitude. Actually, he may be philosophical no more than the man who rebels against his fate. He simply has a different philosophy. The 'philosopher' is only more perceptive than others in recognising and formulating his philosophy; he systematises his views, and projects them into various fields of thought.

Essentially, philosophy is a view of life and its various components; the what, the how, the wherefore of existence, and the what ought to be. Perhaps a man's view of 'what ought to be' most clearly indicates what kind of person he is, and what his philosophy is. Certainly it is this view which serves to motivate his actions. The 'what ought to be,' based on the 'what can be,' that is, the desirable qualified by the feasible, is the basis for any kind of change and is the particular consideration of an extension worker.

So many things are taken for granted in life that one scarcely realises which principle or philosophy of life motivates one's course of action. Yet, if one is to act consistently rather than in a haphazard manner, one must have before oneself a clear picture of what the world is like and what it should be like, and one must have some idea of how to bridge the gap between the two concepts. For some people, there may not appear to be any gap; to them this is the best of all possible worlds, and any departure

from traditional ways and customs is, *ipso facto*, a step in the wrong direction. For them change is degeneration. These people have the cogent argument that, following the footsteps of the ancestors, each generation has, at least, survived.

Change does involve risk ; it is a gamble. It involves efforts, and is always painful at least to some extent. The burden of proof, therefore, lies with those who would urge the adoption of a change in a pattern of life already accepted by, and acceptable or at least tolerable to, those accustomed to it. Since extension work is obviously aimed at inducing changes in the lives of millions of people living in rural India, it becomes incumbent upon those who are engaged in this work to examine the underlying assumptions, clarify their objectives, and evolve procedures by which they can achieve their goal.

The Need for Extension Work

It is said that extension work must be undertaken because we now live in a changing world. Extension work—the education of people to help themselves is thus selected as a means of guiding inevitable change in the right direction. The argument is sometimes advanced that but for the machine age, our villagers would have remained contented and, perhaps, would have been even better off if they had been left to their age-old ways. This is a half-truth at best ; it is not an entirely honest approach. Though the idyllic picture so often painted by people not themselves living in rural areas may have its appeal, it can scarcely be asserted with sincerity that the round of toil, privation, disease, and early death, which is, and has always been, the lot of the average peasant should not be tampered with. It may be true that prior to the modern age the peasant was resigned to his fate, but that is not to say that it was an ideal fate. What has changed is that the peasant has recently become aware that there are kinder fates than his, and he has come to desire a kinder fate for himself. People in other walks of life, too, have looked with compassion on the lot of the peasant, and they have, moreover, realised that the welfare of India as a whole depends upon the welfare of her millions of villagers.

These are some of the basic reasons for change. Even if the world were not already changing, we would still need Extension Education, because change is necessary to make the world a better place to live in. India does not really want the squalid

conditions of the past. Its people are no longer satisfied with the *status quo*, even if it could be preserved.

Once this basic fact is accepted, one can adduce further reasons for change. In any ecology, organic or social, a change in one part involves changes and forces of adjustments in other parts too. To take an example, the advancement of the medical sciences has brought about greater longevity. This change has aggravated and accelerated—though probably not created—the problem of population pressure on the land. Again, the greater mobility of both people and commodities in recent years has brought the peasant in touch with new products which he is unable to judge by himself, and this he has to shoulder the heavy responsibility of choosing and using things wisely.

If change is judged to be both necessary and inevitable, then the question arises: Why Extension Education? Why can we not follow a policy of *laissez-faire* in the social realm? Why not let the peasant adopt the changes he chooses and let him learn by his own mistakes? Such a course might be considered ideal, since it appears to leave the peasant completely free and independent and permits the invisible hand to guide his destiny. In effect, however, this is like leaving him free to fight a tiger without arms, guidance, or assistance. First of all, he is not equipped with the knowledge to make a proper choice. He may have a general desire for better living, but he may not have a specific idea of what improvements are most desirable and most feasible. He may have the quite incorrect notion that the acquisition of more cooking pots or more jewellery would make him a more prosperous person. He needs to be taught true values. On the other hand, he may have a perfectly legitimate desire for a better road, or a roof that doesn't leak, or a bigger yield from his tiny plot of land, but he may not know how to go about getting any of these. He may visualise them as gifts from the gods or, at least, from wealthy benefactors, whereas a little guidance could indicate to him ways and means of obtaining them by his own labour. Very often the peasant himself is devoted to the 'best of all worlds' philosophy, and though he has a natural desire for better conditions for himself, he visualises any improvement in his own lot as within the framework of the existing circumstances, and probably as a matter of fate. If he is very far down the social ladder in his village, he regards his position as fixed and unalterable. Again, if he is relatively comfortably situated, he fears that any change

will be to his disadvantage, because in a static society there is a strong tendency to view all changes as a mere redistribution of the resources already available. It will require much patient and concerted effort to show that the resources can be increased to everybody's advantage.

There is still another reason why Extension Education is necessary in India. It has been mentioned that concerted work is necessary to effect desirable changes. Unfortunately, much effort is expended on behalf of partisan interests. In the face of the sometimes enticing and conflicting claims upon his interest, the bewildered villager must be able to turn to some adviser in whom he can put his trust. He must have confidence that *one* agency at least has his interest at heart and is equipped with the experience and understanding to lead him along the path of sound endeavour.

The Target

Things are of no interest *per se,* but only as they are related to people. It does not matter how many tons of grain are produced unless the grain can be fed to the people, and it does not matter how many tons of steel are produced, unless that steel can be made into products useful to the people. Neither is it of any importance how much of wordly goods a man can have for consumption unless he is thereby made a better man, for "what shall it profit a man if he shall gain the whole world and lose his own soul ?" It is partly for this reason that extension work is concerned not only with the individual but also with the community, for no man can prosper at the expense of his neighbour or without concern of the plight of his neighbour and still be a moral person.

No man can prosper fully unless the community as a whole prospers. Thus, the state should not be personified, much less deified, but rather, should be regarded as the sum total of all its members bound together by a community spirit and concerting their efforts for the general good. Nor can the goal be, simply, the greatest good of the greatest number, for no real good comes at the expense of others, even if it be the good of the majority at the expense of the minority. The ultimate goal is to improve every man, and the whole man.

Extension educational work is aimed at change, but not just any change. It is aimed at only such changes as constitute

improvements. All improvement involves change, but not all change involves improvement. The drowning man may clutch at a straw; and to the desperate any change is attractive. Not so, however, to the dedicated extension worker. Upon him rests the responsibility of judging and choosing. He must look not only at the new resources of knowledge and methods and equipment, but at the old resources as well. He must know what to retain and what to discard as well as what to appropriate and what to reject.

Nor is it possible to assume that it is enough to graft a few new methods on to the old ways. It is folly to say that a culture is unassailable but its methods need revamping to meet modern needs. Hard as it is to admit one's own individual faults, it is even more difficult to acknowledge the collective faults of the group to which one belongs, be it class or caste, religion or nation. Yet it is essential to recognise community shortcomings if they are to be remedied. A disease must be diagnosed before it can be cured.

In his own humble way, the extension worker seeks to attack the evils of intolerance, superstition, and lethargy which are ugly blots on the fair fabric of our culture. If an attempt is made to apply specific modes of progress to a society burdened with these evils, the benefits will run out in the sand while the real man, the whole man, is left no better for the expenditure of effort and resources.

Historical and Constitutional Basis for Extension

The student of Indian history can easily point to numerous instances throughout the ages when one or another philosopher-ruler made a real effort to better the lot of his people. The idea of extension work in its modern sense—that of helping the peasant by changing his attitudes and his way of life and work is, however, something quite new. Even in the West it is scarcely fifty years old.

Extension Education as a national policy and programme originated in the United States of America in the days of Abraham Lincoln in response to the need for informal and practical out-of-school education for rural people. The government granted land for the establishment of colleges for teaching agriculture and mechanical arts on condition that they should cater to the needs of the surrounding population. Hence, the popular name of these schools 'land-grant colleges.' The

extension work done by these colleges represents a partnership among the government, the land-grant colleges, and the people. These colleges have become leading institutions today; they specialise in agriculture and home economics problems and make their teaching and the results of their research available to the farmers through an extension service that has offices in every county of the U.S.A. Thus, knowledge gained in the class-room and the laboratory is *extended* to the farmers and the members of their families in every part of the country. We can, therefore, define extension as the increased dissemination of useful knowledge for improving rural living.

In India, extension work had its beginnings with a few outstanding individuals of a philosophic and philanthropic bent of mind. For the most part they worked in isolation from one another and without government assistance. In some cases these men were government servants whose interest had been aroused through their official contacts with villagers. There were others whose imagination and sympathy enabled them to desire and visualise a better way of life for the peasant. The work of most of them was necessarily confined to relatively small areas.

One of the pioneers of rural welfare work in India was the famous poet and thinker, Rabindranath Tagore. An ardent organiser, Tagore aimed at inducing each villager to work to the limit of his capacity, and also to help his fellow-men. Tagore believed in both self-help and mutual help and was one of the first to recognise the need for a change in the outlook of villagers as a precondition for improvement. He, therefore, urged that every villager and his family should be educated. Community action and collective endeavour, based on the intelligent and informed participation of all the members of the community, he realised, were essential for improving the condition of the villagers. His Shriniketan Institute teaches such subjects as agriculture, village welfare, cooperation, scouting, village industries and education, attesting his insight into the needs of the villagers. Teaching is carried on by means of demonstration and experiment as well as by more formal methods.

Of wider general interest is the work of Mahatma Gandhi, who considered the village to be the very essence of Indian life. The Gandhian approach to rural welfare emphasised the role of the people themselves in any constructive programme. The

goal was the improvement of the inner man and the development of a sounder morality. According to him, self-help was the first step towards moral advancement. Hence, the material advancement of the village was, for him, merely the means to moral betterment, or a by-product of it. He was interested in solving the social and economic problems of the villagers, but he was interested primarily in providing a vital moral and spiritual background for such secular activities as might be undertaken. Nevertheless, he could count many concrete accomplishments. He started a number of movements which have spread throughout India, such as the All India Village Industries Organisation, and the Harijan Sewak Sangh. He found a warm place in the hearts of his countrymen and his selflessness still inspires the work even of those who cannot entirely agree with all his views.

Among the well-wishers of humanity who chose to devote themselves to rural problems, an outstanding place must be reserved for Acharya Vinoba Bhave, the leader of the Bhoodan Movement. Like Gandhiji, Bhave has concentrated on the metaphysical aspects of life. He preaches that strength and power reside in the heart and thought of man. He defines power as being of only three kinds; the power of thought, the power of love, and the power of religion. Society, he believes, is sure to change itself, once people realise and understand love, religion, duty, and truth. Life is not governed by law; people do not live their lives on account of law. Hence only those can have influence on the villagers who are loving of heart, who are devotees of God, and who show renunciation or sacrifice in their lives. This philosophy naturally led to his great mission in life of persuading the villagers to till their land in co-operation with one another.

Among government officials who interested themselves in rural development, the name of Mr. F. L. Brayne stands out. He started a fairly extensive experiment in rural reconstruction in the Gurgaon district of the Punjab and succeeded in arousing considerable enthusiasm among the people. Coupling a practical turn of mind with a compassionate interest in the welfare of the peasants, he adopted a direct approach to development problems. He introduced such improvements into the villages as the construction of manure pits and ventilators, and the use of improved agricultural implements. He also encouraged the education of women. For the purpose of disseminating new knowledge among the villagers, Mr. Brayne

introduced the idea of having a 'village guide' in each village. These guides were not, however, technical men, but merely served as channels for information from outside. Thus they could not themselves tackle the villagers' problems.

Mr. Brayne did not succeed in making his experiment self-sustaining. Although the people appreciated and profited from his efforts while he was among them, popular participation was not sufficient to carry on without the leader. The experiment remained dependent upon the initiative of a single person, and when he was removed through transfer to another district, the people reverted to their traditional way of life.

The experiment was not, however, entirely without lasting results, for it served to bring village problems into prominence. Thus, although it may at first sight seem to have been abortive, it helped to pave the way for more comprehensive efforts. In 1933, Mr. Brayne was appointed Commissioner of Rural Reconstruction in the Punjab, and his work was further expanded. The Punjab government aided the work financially in 1935-36, and later the reconstruction work was transferred to the Co-operative Department, and 'Better Living Societies' were organised for work in the villages.

As early as 1903, Sir Daniel Hamilton had experimented with model villages along cooperative lines in Bengal. This work continued with the organisation of a Central Cooperative Bank and a Cooperative Marketing Society in 1924 and a Rural Reconstruction Institute in 1934. The latter offered training in cottage industries.

Christian missions have for years included education for rural living in their work, and so great has been their dedication that one often hears the admonition to work with 'missionary zeal.' Several agricultural demonstration centres have been established under the auspices of the Y.M.C.A., the most famous of which is that started at Marthandam by the American agricultural expert, Dr. Spencer Hatch, who pioneered this type of work. At Marthandam, Dr. Hatch started a multipurpose co-operative, with poultry, bee-keeping, seeds, animal husbandry and other projects. The programme was all-round, with extensive social activities included.

It is not proposed to describe all the experiments and projects undertaken over the past few years in the interest of rural uplift. Suffice it to mention further only the fine work done in rural reconstruction by V. T. Krishnamachari, as Dewan of

Baroda, in the Sarvodaya Scheme in Bombay, and the Firka Development Scheme in Madras. These were all magnificent beginnings, but they suffered, for the most part from limitations in scope and organisation and from lack of continuity. Many attempts died aborning, but attested to the awakening interest in village uplift. Others struggled to a more secure hold on life and became the basis for more comprehensive efforts later.

Government Assistance

After the Government of India Act of 1935, when the States were given more powers of administration, the concept of 'multipurpose work' grew. In Uttar Pradesh, an ambitious programme of rural development was launched and many new experiments were initiated. For the first time, the government adopted a coordinated approach to the problems of the villagers, replacing the former excessive departmentalisation. It was felt that it would be practical to have one person who will be the friend, philosopher and guide at the village level to give simple and practical solutions to rural problems on the spot. And, thus, the concept of the Village Level Worker came into being. The coordination of administrative machinery at various levels followed. Village uplift became a government concern.

Then came Independence, when the national consciousness was at its greatest height. Fortunately for India and for India's millions of villagers, this national consciousness was directed, not toward revenge and external arrogance, but toward a frank appraisal of the internal situation and an earnest effort to meet the crying needs of the day. The framers of the Constitution were at pains to spell out their aspirations for the people of India. Their aim was to shape a constitution that would assure political and religious freedom within the framework of a secular democratic government. Accordingly, the Directive Principles of State Policy laid down that "the State shall strive to promote the welfare of the people by securing and protecting as effectively as it may a social order in which justice, social, economic and political, shall inform all the institutions of the national life."

Elsewhere in the Directive Principles, emphasis is placed on the equal rights of all citizens—men and women—to an adequate means of livelihood. They lay down that ownership and control of the material resources of the community are to be so

distributed as best to subserve the common good; the economic system must not result in the concentration of wealth and means of production in the hands of a few to the common detriment of all; there must be equal pay for equal work for both men and women; the health and strength of the workers, men and women, and the tender age of children are not to be abused; citizens should not be forced by economic necessity to enter vocations unsuited to their age or strength; childhood and youth must be protected against exploitation and against moral and material abandonment.

Other guiding principles relate to the encouragement to be given to the villagers to organise their own units of self-government for which they are to be endowed with the requisite power and authority. Provision is made for securing the right to work, to education, and to public assistance. It is also a matter of State Policy to secure to all workers, agricultural or otherwise, a living wage and conditions of work which will ensure a decent standard of living, full enjoyment of leisure and social and cultural opportunities. Also included in the Constitution are provisions calling for free and compulsory education for all children, promotion of the educational and economic interests of the weaker sections of the people, raising of the level of nutrition, and improvement of public health. Of special interest are provisions for the organisation of agriculture and animal husbandry along modern, scientific lines, and for the organisation of social welfare activities.

The prohibition of discrimination on grounds of religion, race, caste, sex, or place of birth have relevance to rural extension work as for urban uplift. For, such discrimination must be removed if the villagers are to become the nucleus of a healthy and progressive India. The Constitution of India aspires to secure for all citizens, of which the preponderant majority are in the villages, such conditions as Justice, social, economic and political; Liberty of thought, expression, belief, faith and worship; Equality of status and of opportunity; and to promote among them all Fraternity, assuring the dignity of the individual and the unity of the Nation. Thus, the Constitution expresses comprehensively the basic philosophy of a free and democratic society seeking and achieving rapid and continuous economic progress 'with the largest possible measure of social justice.'

It visualises an ideal society, yet it is not idealistic in the sense of being Utopian. It recognises the needs of man, and points out the specific objectives to be achieved within this framework. Furthermore, it establishes that the objectives are to be achieved by democratic means, in freedom and justice for all. This last point is perhaps the most significant of all for extension work, for the type of work envisioned here can be carried out only in an atmosphere of freedom and justice. Great material progress may be achieved, at least in the short run, by means of compulsion and even through the use of terroristic methods, but extension educational work can succeed only with the voluntary cooperation and whole-hearted participation of all the members of the community. And only with this type of work can the all-round objectives of the Constitution be achieved.

But if the Constitution set forth the aspirations of the people of India and provided a framework for the realisation of the same, it did not actually spell out a programme or provide for its implementation. These concrete steps were to be taken later.

As mentioned above, the State governments had already become involved in community development or village welfare work before Independence. At just about the time of Independence, the State of Uttar Pradesh was forging ahead with a new project in the Etawah District, the aim of which was "to make maximum progress both in improving physical productivity and in developing the people's own capacities and initiative to give the people better land and better implements and at the same time to alert them for the future." Conceived in 1947, this pilot project was inaugurated in September 1948, under the guidance of Lt. Col. Albert Mayer, an American who had come to India with the American armed forces in 1944. It received financial assistance from the United States Point-4 Programme. This project was started with 64 villages, and the number was later increased. As the name 'pilot project' implies, this was in the nature of an experiment. The aim was not only to improve the selected villages, but also to find out just what improvements could be accomplished in a typical rural area. It was to be a laboratory in village work for the guidance of workers elsewhere, and not just an isolated instance of benevolence. Moreover, it was multipurpose in the deepest sense of the word. It was aimed at widening the horizon of the villager, arousing his interest and initiative as well as in

improving his crops and livestock. It encouraged the development of *panchayats,* an increase in educational facilities, the spread of improved farming methods and the construction of roads and soak pits. Above all, it concerned itself with the methods by which these things should be accomplished. It was clearly established that the villager should be educated rather than commanded, and that education should proceed through demonstration and persuasion rather than by rote and compulsion. Here, then, were the ingredients for extension work embodied in a small pilot project. They had still to be taken up on a scale which would be felt throughout the length and breadth of the country.

To the zeal for village improvement was added a growing awareness that the fate of India was very much bound up with the fate of the villages, and that India depended for its existence on the productive capacity of the villages.

In March 1950, the Government of India set up a Planning Commission to formulate the First Five Year Plan. The philosophical basis for the Plan was the Fundamental Rights guaranteed by the Constitution, and the Plan was, in turn to provide the material wherewithal for furthering the principles of the Constitution. The Plan was to map out a means of building up a new pattern of society through a concentrated effort in which every citizen should have the opportunity to participate. The central objective was to "initiate a process of development which will raise living standards and open out to the people new opportunities for a richer and more varied life." To this end both agriculture and industry were to be developed for the maximum benefit of the people. There were long-range plans for big irrigation and power projects, conservation of natural resources, and re-organisation of the administration, but due to the serious food shortage facing India at the time, the primary emphasis was put on food production and multipurpose schemes. However, the Plan did not directly envisage extension work as it is known in India today.

Extension in terms of intensive rural work which would reach every farmer and assist in the coordinated development of rural life as a whole received attention in the Community Development Programme which was inaugurated in 1952. With this it was intended to initiate a process of transformation of the socio-economic life of the villages. The programme, therefore, aims at an all-round development—economic, social, and

cultural—of the rural areas. The launching of the Community Projects was "a proclamation of war against poverty, disease and ignorance—the triple enemies that have sucked the vitals of our people. The battle must be won, the battle to bring in the plenty we longed for—plenty of food, plenty of clothes, plenty of shelter, plenty of concord, and all that we need for a fuller life, so that India should live again."

The Community Development Programme is based on true democratic principles—it is intended to be a programme for and by the people. It is a multi-pronged attack on the manifold problems of Indian villages, and views the life of the farmer as an integrated whole. The aim is to realise the objectives of the programme by instilling enthusiasm in the people to participate both in its planning and in its execution and thus to improve their own living conditions. The magnitude of the programme, itself, is expected to have a favourable influence on the outlook of the rural masses, especially in the direction of building a stronger democracy.

The First Five Year Plan, which concluded in March 1956, was a step, but only a step, in the direction of rapid and balanced economic development. The Second Plan was designed to carry on the processes initiated under the First Plan, and to give concrete expression to policy decisions relating to the socialistic pattern of society. Due to the degree of success achieved in agriculture during the First Plan, the Second Plan was, however, directed primarily toward laying the foundation for industrial progress while providing opportunities for betterment to the under-privileged sections of the people.

Even before the completion of the Second Plan, however, it was realised that agriculture and villagers were the real key to national well-being, and new emphasis is, accordingly, being put upon their development. In conformity with the traditional pattern, the village is regarded in the Second Plan as the basic unit of economy. Thus it should be possible to build up the planning and executive machinery right from the basic unit to the centre and link the village people closely with the government machinery. As the people become more closely associated with the programme, a healthy process of 'growth from below' should develop.

The Participants and their Roles

Extension work, like good government, is of the people, by

the people, and for the people, and requires initiative on the part of all concerned. The participants have separate and independent functions which must work for one end and mesh into a coordinated whole. Each is the author of his own endeavour, yet each derives strength and inspiration from the others.

The participants may be loosely sub-divided into three groups: the villagers, the nation, and the extension workers. That this sub-division is loose, indeed, may be grasped by only a moment's reflection, for the nation is constituted by the villagers (along with others), and the extension worker may well, himself, be a villager who has gained sufficient insight and education and has sufficient enthusiasm to work for the uplift of his fellow-men. The extension worker is also, on the other hand, an agent of the government as well as the people. Nevertheless, for practical purposes of describing certain functions, the division is helpful. Now, these three groups or units are often conceived of as a straight line running from the government to the villager, with the extension worker constituting the connecting link, or the channel, and the concept usually includes only a one-way flow of information, encouragement, resources, and perhaps orders, from a central body to the villager. This is not the picture of a vital and successful extension programme. It would be better to visualise the three as forming a triangle, or perhaps a tripod which supports the programme. Each unit has direct contact with the centre, the heart of the programme, and if any one of the three legs falls down, the programme will topple too.

In this context, the government represents the broad interest of the whole nation, while the villager represents the interests of the individual. As has already been shown, these interests are inseparable, and neither party can thrive without the other. This is not always obvious in the short-run, but in the long-run the interests will be seen to coincide. For example, a villager with a good rice crop may expect to profit handsomely from a grain shortage of national proportions, but soon the prices of other commodities rise, economic stagnation sets in, and he is caught up in the general poverty. He would be better off to have a fair share of increased national prosperity than to have a larger share of national scarcity; hence, the practical value of community endeavour both in the village and on a nation-wide scale and the value of cooperation between the individual and the nation as a whole. Cooperation between the government and the individual in extension work lies in the sphere of collecting and

coordinating information and in utilising it for practical purposes. This applies to research and experimentation as well as observation and collection of statistics. No individual villager, no individual village, and indeed, no individual State, can afford to undertake all of the research needed to provide the necessary information for rational rural living, but neither can the national government perform any research *in vacuo*. Thus, the national government depends on the individuals and the communities to carry out assigned or voluntary portions of a project and to coordinate the results for the benefit of the whole.

Moreover, research can be of no benefit either to the individual or to the country unless the recommendations based on its findings are adopted or put into practice by villagers. There may be a need for overall coordination even at this stage. For example, it may be found that papayas can be grown easily near Delhi, that the introduction of a new method of cultivation will increase the yield, and that papayas sell for a high price in Delhi. Yet, if every villager near Delhi were to act on this information and plant his entire holding to papayas, without consideration of what other farmers were doing, the resultant slump in the Delhi papaya market can well be imagined. So, a balanced use of the resultant information must be achieved, in this case, through market analysis and assignment of some sort of 'quotas' for adoption of new measures. On the other hand, no amount of research will be of any avail if the villager simply turns a deaf ear to the information and advice forthcoming from the government.

It is thus clear that the relationship between the government and the villager is a mutually dependent one. Thus far, however, the picture is still one of a straight line, with the extension worker not even mentioned, but probably visualised by some as the channel through which all this information and cooperation can flow. This picture, it was stated at the outset, is not an acceptable one. The reason will soon be seen.

A passive extension worker is a contradiction in terms. The extension worker is no mere messenger boy. At the risk of mixing metaphors, we can say that he is, at least, the spark plug without which the machine will not work. But he is more than that. He is an entity by himself, a source of developmental energy and a co-author of the nation's progress. He learns from both the government and the villager; he synthesises the

knowledge and understanding gained from both sources; and he applies his ability on the spot to solve the problems of both, thus reducing the burden on each and adding to the resources of each.

The farmer wants to grow better wheat, and the extension worker examines the farmer's resources and methods, finds out where they are defective, and shows him how to improve upon them. The government wants a new method of cultivation introduced which it knows to be superior, and the extension worker studies the present methods of cultivation the villagers follow and the reasons for them, dispels villagers' fears, arouses their interest, and finally secures the introduction of the new method. But greater than either of these functions is his function as innovator and original contributor. The extension worker, with his technical training and broad outlook on the one hand and his intimate knowledge of local conditions and understanding of his fellow-men on the other, is in a unique position to perceive possibilities for improvement. He is in a good position to arouse the villager's interest and make him feel the need for these improvements, and thus to effect changes which neither the villager nor the central government as such could have conceived of. Then, through the offices of the government or through direct contacts, he can pass his experiences and accomplishments on to other extension workers so that they may become the property of the entire nation.

But, if the extension worker is to fulfil the expectations just enumerated, he must be a special sort of person. The man or woman who aspires to such a post must be intelligent, sympathetic, dedicated, alert, humble and well trained. The natural traits are pre-requisite, but they are not sufficient in themselves. All the well meaning in the world will not, by itself, do the job, although dedication often brings with it a sort of aptitude which seems to sense what methods will succeed. Unfortunately, however, this cannot be depended upon, as witness the many philanthropists through the ages who have expended their efforts on fruitless projects. And even the most apt persons can be rendered more capable by proper training, just as a naturally musically talented person can most perfectly develop his skills under expert tutelage. That is why, having examined what is expected of an extension worker, we must turn to the methods by which he can achieve his objectives and in turn the objectives of the nation which has enlisted his services.

Extension is Education

In most of the earlier attempts to improve the conditions of the villagers, the emphasis was on the improvement of cultivation methods and the increase of food production. It was taken for granted that the betterment of rural society as a whole was involved, but in most of the organised efforts this was regarded either as a means to the end or as a by-product of the process of crop improvement.

The present concept of extension has combined the concern of the philosopher and philanthropist for the development of the whole man with the methodology and efficiency of an organised programme. It recognises the need for scientific knowledge and the large-scale application of scientific methods, and at the same time it goes deeper to the human need for dignity, self-reliance, freedom and moral responsibility. In short, it emphasises the need for development of the whole man, for total involvement, total participation, and total conviction. It is this change of emphasis that most clearly distinguishes present day extension educational work in India from the previous efforts in this direction.

The basic philosophy of extension work that it is directed at conversion of the whole man determines the approach that must be adopted for its implementation. Compulsion does not persuade, and even a beneficent act does not necessarily improve the man whose lot is improved thereby. The only way to secure the intelligent and whole-hearted cooperation of a person is to educate him. Nor does education mean the mere dissemination of knowledge—the peddling of facts—though the facts are necessary. The primary aim is to influence attitudes, modes of thinking, and ways of doing things. The last mentioned will almost automatically change with a change in the other two, but it is not a simple thing to change attitudes and thinking processes.

As already noted, the Indian peasant, like peasants the world over, is instinctively conservative. He resists change almost as a matter of conscience and certainly as a matter of expediency. If this resistance is to be overcome, its causes must be studied and removed. The extension worker must, himself, study the complex creature which is man.

In this study he will find many traits common to all men. He will find that all human beings have some sort of conscience,

that they are all bound by loyalties and spurred on by some aspirations, that all are capable of reverence and admiration and love. He will find also that all are endued with some degree of reason and imagination. The capacity to reason enables man to discern the relationship between cause and effect ; it enables him to solve problems. The ability to imagine is, in some respects, even more remarkable. With this, man can close his eyes and see mental images, not only of things he has seen in the past (a product of memory combined with imagination), but also things that he has never actually seen. With it he can put himself in the position of another. With it, he can evaluate his own experiences over and over again in different contexts, visualise and benefit from the experiences of others, and determine from hypothetical situations what conditions should be brought about, or need to be avoided.

In his study of human nature, the extension worker will also find that he is not dealing with human nature in a mass. Despite the easy talk about the 'ignorant masses,' the 'typical peasant,' or the 'mass mind,' human beings are not mere swarms of identical creatures. Each one is a unique being and possesses importance and significance in his own right. Each has a unique and different personality quite aside from the superficial differences of height, weight, and outward appearance. There are differences in general intelligence, in learning ability, in memory, sensitivity and ability to respond to sensations, and in a myriad of other qualities. In each there is a 'hidden depth' that longs for sympathy, understanding and recognition. Some of these differences make the task of the extension worker at once more difficult, more challenging, and more rewarding.

The worker must be intimately acquainted with the individual if he is to take advantage of these differences to bring about the progress at which he aims. He will find some people more curious than others, and some more inclined to look into new possibilities ; some will be more dependent than others, and some will accept advice more readily once their confidence is won. Some will have a more highly developed aesthetic sense which will lead them to accept and participate in programmes of cultural improvement. Some, it must be recognised, will be of such a texture as to tempt the extension worker to despair, but these are the ones who most need his encouragement and guidance and who also need the support of their fellow villagers through both example and direct assistance.

If the common concept that "you cannot change human nature" was correct, then there would be no point in extension work, for the aim of Extension Education is to bring about a complete transformation, social and economic, of the individual and of the community. It is generally accepted that human nature is influenced by environment. A change in the environment will, then, leave some imprint on the human beings living in that environment. The injection of effective extension work into a community constitutes such a change.

Irrespective of natural mental capacity, education can increase the effective intelligence of an individual or a group. Even a savage tribe can profit by education; the most primitive people can learn new social customs, become law abiding, and improve their living conditions. The pattern of thinking of a young mind can be changed quite markedly by education, and even an older person sometimes alters his views radically if confronted with convincing evidence. So, despite the instinctive behaviour patterns over which he has little conscious control, despite intellectual shortcomings, despite the tenacity of prejudices and superstitions, man has a great capacity for education—a greater capacity than any other creature—and because of the complicated environment in which he is placed, he, of all creatures, has the greatest need for it.

What, then, is the education to be imparted by the extension worker? In this short Chapter emphasis has been repeatedly put on the method of education. The reason for this is that the method and the substance are closely associated. It is, of course, essential that the farmers and their families learn to grow better crops, to keep better homes, to educate their children, to make wise use of their resources—in short, they should absorb all the knowledge that modern science can provide and benefit by it. It is essential that their material welfare should be improved. Greater than any of these, however, is the education that goes to make up the new peasant and the new peasant woman. As the villagers learn scientific facts through the democratic process there is born in them a desire to continue the work, to approach every new problem with hope, determination, self-reliance, and a sense of fair play. They develop a new attitude toward change itself, an objective, inquiring attitude that neither embraces nor rejects a method simply because it is new or old. They learn to cooperate for the common good. They learn to discern real values. They achieve a new sense of fulfilment of the glory

that attaches to God's highest creature on earth. They see that the struggle is theirs, and that in serving God and their fellow-men they are finding their own salvation. Their minds are opened, their energies released, their senses altered. They not only accept, but demand and achieve further progress. This is the essence of the education which extension work seeks to impart.

When is the Job Finished?

At some stage one usually gets a sense of completion with regard to a given assignment. This sense of completion or of closure, as it is sometimes called, has been the object of psychological studies which reveal some interesting facts about human nature. It has been found that some people achieve a sense of closure long before a job is really complete; at some stage which might be likened to the end of a chapter as compared with the end of a book. For example, the assignment may be to introduce the system of having a wood-lot in each village. The man entrusted with this job may be very conscientious in seeing to it that the villagers become sufficiently interested in the project to plant some trees. But he may stop there, content that he has done his job. The trees may live or die; it is no concern of his. Quite obviously, however, if the trees do not receive proper care—if they die after a short while—his work turns out to be a fruitless expenditure of effort.

It is not enough, therefore, to inaugurate a programme. It must be seen through. To elaborate on the illustration, the trees must be watered. As they grow, they must be pruned. Eventually, when the time comes to make use of them, those to be felled must be carefully chosen with an eye to the future stand as well as to the current profit; and finally, if this is to be a continuing source of income, new trees must be planted from time to time. These are the various 'chapters' of this particular 'book.'

When the extension worker first sets forth, he has limited concrete objectives, although he must also have the total objective in view. At first, he has a limited number of methods to 'peddle'; he has a few stock answers; he can make contacts with only a few of the more open-minded people in the villages to which he is assigned; and he knows that many villages are not being reached at all, for there are not enough workers to serve all of the villages of India. Gradually, he learns what is

in the minds of the farmers ; his work becomes a two-way street of ideas, problems and solutions. A few villagers adopt some of his methods. They are met with a degree of success—and more problems arise.

What is the line of development from here? Is the goal attained? Should he strive for acceptance on the part of all of the villagers, or proceed to help the few willing ones further along the way? Ideally, he must do both. Of course, the total acceptance of all his ideas—even those demonstrated to be practical and feasible—may not crown the efforts of any worker, but a dynamic process is set in action and develops in many directions. The worker himself will develop as he finds himself shedding preconceived notions and wrestling with new problems. The progressive farmers will pose ever more difficult problems and will begin to assist in their solution. Most exacting and rewarding of all, the extension worker will suddenly find that he is no longer a lone prophet, but that he is one of a company of campaigners for a better way of life. Those who were his first disciples have become his partners in this endeavour, while those whose minds and hearts were at the beginning inaccessible to him are being convinced by their more progressive brothers.

All over India this process is going on. More and more villages are being reached as additional workers can be sent out. More and more villagers in each village are responding. But the end is not in sight. As the simplest and most obvious problems are solved, as the problem of sheer numbers is overcome, the effort is raised to a higher plane and the work presents a greater challenge. Various phases of it are completed, and there is cause for rejoicing as each milestone is passed and the fruits become ripe for plucking, but there is never a time, and there never will be, when the passing of one milestone does not bring another, a more distant one, into view. Just as with the wood-lot, extension work seeks, first, to establish something, and then to maintain, not a static condition, but continued growth and yield.

The first years are the most difficult, the most strenuous ; but beyond them lies the prospect, not of stagnation, not of a level plane or a decline, but of gathering momentum which will make the ascent easier and the passing of new milestones swifter and more significant.

Selected References

Community Development in India. V. T. Krishnamachari, Publications Division, Government of India, New Delhi, 1958.
Community Development Programme in India. M. L. Wilson, Ministry of Community Development and Cooperation, Government of India, New Delhi, 1956.
Cooperative Extension Work. L. D. Kelsey and C. C. Hearne, Comstock Publishing Associates, Ithaca, New York, 1949.
Experiment in Education—Gaon Sathi. Allahabad Agricultural Institute, Oxford University Press, 1956.
First Five Year Plan. Planning Commission, Government of India, New Delhi, 1951.
Guide to Community Development. Ministry of Community Development and Cooperation, Government of India, New Delhi, 1957.
Introduction to Indian Philosophy. S. Chatterjee and D. Mohan Dutta, University of Calcutta, Calcutta, 1954.
Methods and Programme Planning in Rural Extension. J. M. A. Penders, H. Veenman and Zenen, Wageningen, The Netherlands, 1956.
National Extension Service and Community Projects in Punjab. M. S. Randhawa, Community Projects Administration, Punjab, Chandigarh, 1955.
New India. Planning Commission, Government of India, Macmillan and Company, New York.
Philosophy. C. E. M. Joad, English University Press Ltd., London, 1945.
Philosophy of India. Heinrich Zunimar, Merdian Book Co., New York, 1955.
Pilot Project in India. Albert Mayer and associates, University of California Press, 1958.
Problem of Problems. S. K. Dey, Ministry of Community Development and Cooperation, Government of India, New Delhi, 1959.
Report on India's Food Crisis and Steps to Meet It. Agricultural Production Team Sponsored by the Ford Foundation, Ministry of Food and Agriculture and Ministry of Community Development and Cooperation, Government of India, New Delhi, 1959.
Road to Welfare State. Publications Division, Government of India, New Delhi, 1957.
Rural Reconstruction. Mukhtiar Singh, Kitabistan, Allahabad, 1946.
Second Five Year Plan. Planning Commission, Government of India, New Delhi, 1956.
Seminar Papers. Department of Economics, University of Madras, Madras, 1956-57.
Spirit and Philosophy of Extension Work. R. K. Bliss and others, Graduate School, United States Department of Agriculture, Washington D.C., 1952.
Towards a Welfare State. Directorate of Extension, Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Government of India, New Delhi, 1957.
What Man May Be—The Human Side of Science. George Russell Harrison, William Morrow & Co., New York, 1956.

CHAPTER III

OBJECTIVES AND METHODS OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

B. Mukerji

WHEN THE 55 Community Development Projects were originally started in October 1952, they were largely conceived as areas of intensive development in which the development agencies of government were to work together as a team on the programmes planned and coordinated in advance and executed in active association with the people. A fairly heavy outlay of expenditure was provided for these projects by the government. Later, when it was decided to rapidly expand the coverage of the programme, the financial outlay per Block had necessarily to be much reduced. But the essential characteristics of a coordinated development through an extension organisation were retained. The organisation consisted of specialists drawn from all important development departments who worked as a team under a single leader, the Block Development Officer, and guided the common multipurpose worker, the Gram Sevak. Every Block was to pass first, through a less intensive, and then, through a more intensive period of development, with additional funds provided during the latter period.

Expansion of the Programme

But the leaders of the nation who had conceived of the programme of Community Development, had before them a vision much larger and grander than what the 55 Projects of 1952 presented. The Prime Minister has often referred to the Community Development Programme as a revolutionary one. On one occasion, he said, "I think nothing has happened in any country in the world during the last few years so big in content and so revolutionary in design as the Community Projects in

India." He has repeatedly emphasised that the importance of the programme does not lie so much in the material improvements that it may bring but in its attempt to build the community and the individual and make them the builders of their own villages and their own life. The programme in its early stages paid more attention to the achievement of physical targets. Gradually the real significance of the programme is being revealed and the vital contribution it can make to India's rural development is becoming apparent.

Basic Objectives

The Community Development Programme is an integral part of the Five Year Plans. These Plans aim at promoting an all-round development of the country in a planned and democratic manner. The Community Development Programme is aimed at developing the rural sector.

The same basic objectives and policies govern both the Community Development Programme and the Five Year Plans. These may be very broadly described as economic development, social justice and democratic growth. The attempt is to obtain as good a balance among these three objectives as is possible and to inter-relate them in a manner that they support one another. To illustrate the point : in the economic sphere, the attempt is to increase agricultural and industrial production, and at the same time to arrange for a proper distribution of land and ensure an adequate return to the tiller of the soil for his labour such as would meet the requirements of social justice. This explains in part the importance attached to land reform measures.

Without democracy, the efforts to achieve economic development and social justice would be on insecure foundations. But there has to be a compromise between the democratic objective and the objective of economic development. Economic development should not be there at the cost of democratic values, nor should the democratic growth be imperilled for lack of economic development or failure to promote social justice.

India's approach to planned development takes its inspiration from the Directive Principles of State Policy embodied in the Constitution. In the Constitution is found also the seed of the concept of the Welfare State. The participation of the people in the development programme is an integral part of the concept of the Welfare State. In promoting the economic and social welfare of the people, the highest democratic values—the dignity

of man, personal freedom, property rights and so on—have to be preserved. And yet, the rights of the individual have to be tempered by the needs of social justice. Property rights, for example, must be subject to the interest of the society. Reconciling or harmonising the interests of the State and the individual, and of the individual and the community is to be achieved by progressively increasing the sphere of cooperative action.

Problems of Rural Reconstruction

The rural situation in India is dominated by the following factors from which arise the main problems of rural reconstruction and development :

1. A very low level of production largely due to the employment of primitive methods of farming.
2. Lack of resources for investment in development work and a very low rate of capital formation.
3. Considerable unemployment and more under-employment.
4. Limited capacity of the rural people to take advantage of science and technology.
5. A disintegrating community.

These factors, as can easily be seen, are inter-related. Together, they account for the existence of a static and depressed state of economy which has not the capacity to grow on its own impulse and resources. At the same time, the resources at the command of the nation are inadequate for meeting all the demands for development. There is, therefore, little possibility of resources from outside the rural sector being made available for rural development. For some time to come, the rural areas will have to depend very largely on their own resources and these are only two, land and man-power.

The production from land has to be increased by the application of modern techniques and the incentive to produce more has to be strengthened by promoting social justice in the agrarian system. The tiller of the soil has to be assured of a full return for his labour. The man-power, which in terms of numbers is abundant in the rural areas but in its present state of poverty, ignorance and ill-health is lacking in community consciousness, is more a liability than an asset and has to be developed to its maximum potential capacity. This is the ultimate objective of Community Development. It attempts to

develop the human being, as an individual and as a member of the community, by promoting in him a progressive outlook, self-reliance, dedication to community objectives and a cooperative way of life.

People and Technology

Community Development is based on a faith in the capacity of the rural people to help themselves, on a faith in the benefits of science and technology, on a faith in democratic methods and in social justice. It recognises the true and vital place of rural reconstruction in the total development of our country. There is the belief that the rural people have almost limitless capacity to fashion a better life for themselves if properly aided by State action ; that they alone can solve the food problem of the country by intensifying their effort for increasing food production ; that they alone can rebuild the community life. The State can only create the favourable conditions for, and give directions to, the nation's growth. But for this, the main stimulus has to come from the people themselves as expressed in their desire for better living and in their appreciation of the fact that better living can be realised only through self-exerted leadership and group effort.

Science and technology have to contribute to human betterment and to accelerated social progress. But only a skilful use of science can help the rural people. Its unwise use and any attempt to force the pace of technological advance may prove to be harmful. The success of the Community Development Programme can, in a way, be measured by the speed with which the rural communities are enabled to absorb a higher technology and benefit from it. Only by the application of science and technology can the problem of poverty and under-production, disease and ill-health, housing and village sanitation be solved and the welfare of the people promoted.

The Community Development approach has to be an essentially democratic approach such as will draw large masses of the people as active partners in the task of developing the vast country. For, only thus can this gigantic task be accomplished. The Community Development approach, while it will depend on the democratic process, will at the same time also help to strengthen it. There is, therefore, complete inter-relationship between Community Development and the progress of democracy; they are the two sides of the same coin. Both are processes of

human development. It is for this reason that the Community Development Programme came to focus attention on the importance and urgency of democratic decentralisation. Democratic decentralisation must not be understood as merely the creation of local self-governing institutions of the people at different levels or as transfer of real power to the people. Its object is to give vitality to the whole democratic process and to provide to a new-born democracy a wider and firmer base.

Methods

The methods employed in Community Development are Extension Education and Community Organisation. The method of Extension Education is used for improving the quality of the human being and for improving his knowledge and skill as a farmer, as an artisan, as the head of a family and as a responsible citizen of a progressive democratic state. Much importance is, therefore, attached to programmes of adult education and social education. The aim is to make the villager progress-minded, desirous of improving his living conditions, and capable of doing so through his own efforts and through cooperating with his fellow-beings in promoting his group interest and the interest of the community in which he lives. The extension techniques and the different methods of communication developed by social scientists and known to experienced extension workers are used in this process of educating the people and stimulating them to purposeful action and to gradually bringing about a guided technological and social change.

Community Organisation

Any programme of Community Development must proceed to organise the community for more efficient functioning and for assuming larger responsibilities in the promotion of its own economic, social and cultural development. This becomes doubly important since the Indian rural community is in a state of disintegration and needs increased solidarity and cohesion to promote social harmony. To that objective must be added the objective of the development of democracy. Thus has been evolved a pattern of Community Organisation for the village level in which the village *panchayat*, the village cooperative and the village school are to be the three basic institutions.

The *panchayat* is to function as the civic and developmental authority, the cooperative in the economic sphere and the

village school in the intellectual and cultural spheres. Other associate organisations are to be developed, such as the women's and youth organisations and farmers' and artisans' associations, to work for the progress of the community in their respective functional spheres. These will be linked up with the *panchayat* organisationally so that they can help it in its development work and be supported in turn by it in their own work.

The *panchayat* will be a statutory and democratic body, elected by the entire adult population of the village. It will work through committees, each committee dealing with one subject or allied group of subjects, such as a committee for agriculture and animal husbandry, one for public health and rural sanitation, another for education and social education, etc. These committees will co-opt on them leading members of the other associate organisations. By this method it is intended that a large number of knowledgeable and willing persons should actively work for the development of the community.

Government funds for assisting the activities of these associate organisations will be routed through the *panchayat*. The idea has to be promoted that the *panchayat* is a village government.

The village school has to be developed also as a community centre of the village to undertake extension work in the cultural, recreational and allied fields. The *panchayats* and cooperatives have to have a small population coverage, generally not more than a village, so that they can best promote the sense of belonging to the community, and the cooperative action in the community. The close relationship and collaboration between the *panchayat*, cooperative, village school and the associate organisations is to promote the idea of community solidarity.

The idea of separate interest groups organising themselves to 'fight for their rights' has to be avoided. Such is to be the pattern of community organisation at the community (village) level. In fact, a radical change in the concept of the *panchayat* is taking place. The *panchayat* is not to be only a democratic form of village government of the representative type, but the organisation of the whole community for effectively functioning as the agency of progress, which will look after all sections of the community, take particular care of the under-privileged classes and work within the entire field of development. Similarly, cooperation is ceasing to have the old restricted approach of the cooperative society being regarded as a voluntary group of

persons looking after their own interests. It is to be regarded as the agency for promoting cooperative working of the community based on the ideals of mutual aid and thrift. Cooperation has to become an instrument of social change. So there is the emphasis on universal membership of the village cooperative, on its service functions and on the principle that credit should be given for credit-worthy purposes and not to credit-worthy persons only.

Nature and Content of the Programme

From what has been said so far it should be clear that Community Development should be regarded more as a method and an ideology for promoting the development of the rural areas of the country on democratic lines with the active participation of the people. It should be obvious, too, that this method and ideology can be applied only through a programme of activities. Both the methods of Community Development—Extension Education and Community Organisation, can be practised only through the medium of a programme of activities. Farmers can be taught better farming methods only by taking up programmes of farm improvement. Villagers can be made health and sanitation-minded only by taking up programmes in those fields. Similarly, the institutions and organisations of the people will grow in capacity and strength by taking up responsibilities and performing various tasks of development.

The programme of Community Development must have the following essential characteristics.

1. It has to correspond to the basic needs of the people, if their problems are to be solved, their welfare promoted and their willing participation in the programme obtained.
2. It has to be an integrated and a multipurpose programme that deals with all the major problems of the rural areas simultaneously as the rural situation demands. Otherwise it will fail to solve any of the problems. Hence the programme has to comprise activities in the fields of agriculture and animal husbandry, irrigation and cooperation, village and small-scale industries, health and sanitation. education and social education, communication and rural housing, economic and social welfare, and the welfare of women, children and the under-privileged classes.

3. It must aim at making the fullest utilisation of local resources, of men, material, leadership and talent and their fullest development, if the capacity of the local community and its self-reliance are to be promoted. Reliance on outside help must be as little as possible.
4. It must emphasise permanent improvements that will permanently build up people's capacity and confidence in themselves.
5. It must distribute the benefits of progress evenly over the entire community and reduce the economic and social disparities that exist between the different classes in the community, if community cohesion and social justice are to be promoted.

Local and National Goals

While a Community Development Programme has to be primarily a local programme based on the needs and aspirations of the local communities, it must also give due emphasis to some national goals which have necessarily to be achieved through the efforts of local communities. This necessity is even greater since the programme is an integral part of India's Five Year Plans. Rapid and substantial increase in food production and expansion of employment opportunities in the rural areas by the intensification of agriculture and development of village industries which are more labour intensive than capital intensive, are important examples of such national goals of planning and development that have to find a big place in the Community Development Programme.

It is equally important that a Community Development Programme taken up on a national scale as in India, should have necessary support from the National Plans. Major irrigation and river valley projects, increased fertiliser production, generation of electricity and its supply to rural areas and the mobilisation of credit for productive purposes are examples of this kind. To be fully effective, community self-help projects require both intensive and extensive assistance from government. The Community Development Programme at the local level should take full advantage of national and regional development schemes. Major river valley schemes would often be financially impracticable unless farmers are induced and assisted under the Community Development Programme to adopt improved farming practices. The economic usefulness of a major road or

irrigation system may largely depend on feeder systems which people must build through self-help efforts under a programme of aided self-help.

The National Extension Service

The National Extension Service is being organised and developed as the agency for undertaking and assisting the development of the rural areas and communities according to the Community Development ideology and objectives. In the limited sense, the National Extension Service refers only to the Block organisation. But in the wider sense the entire development services of government are beginning to function as an extension service, working according to the two methods to be employed in Community Development—Extension Education and Community Organisation—in fields where their activities relate to promoting change in the rural people and helping them help themselves.

CHAPTER IV

Need for extension training

Douglas Ensminger

The need for training in Extension Education extends to all people who either have administrative responsibility for rural development programmes or who as volunteers seek opportunities to improve village conditions. Change within a democracy must be viewed and understood to be both a social and an economic process. Long years of trial and error followed by evaluation of results achieved make it possible now to say that there is a body of knowledge on how to bring about change most effectively in the mental outlook of people as well as in their ways of doing things.

Since India's people have long been suffering and are now awakening to the fact that they no longer need to live in deprivation of the necessities of life, it is both logical and of national necessity that the tried and proven method for bringing about change be employed in getting the village people themselves to change from their traditional ways of thinking, of living and of making a living. India's very future is at stake. The rate of India's progress in all fields of development is, and will continue to be, related to the rate of change made by villagers in accepting and having continuous successful experience with the application of science and technology both in their ways of making a living and in the way they convert increased income into ways of living better.

It is not enough to agree that all staff—administrators, specialists, village extension workers—should be trained in the methods of Extension Education. To be trained in extension for Community Development means first, to understand the philosophy and objectives of Community Development ; second, to understand what is meant by extension; third, to know what can be expected from the correct use of extension; fourth, to know

how to apply extension methods, and finally, to know how to evaluate the effectiveness of the extension methods applied.

The Administrator

The administrator in Community Development must know that extension is an educational process. He must look upon the administrative role as that of providing the best possible conditions for organising and carrying out programmes of social and economic change through the use of Extension Education. He must understand that while it is important for both the staff as well as village people to have targets or goals to be achieved, these must be set *with due recognition of what is involved educationally* in selecting and in achieving them. He must know the *time period* involved in educating people to want to change, and to provide for them successful experience with new ways of doing things. He must understand the process by which people reject old ways of thinking and doing and accept new ones.

The administrator must know that with each significant change accepted by the people, the people themselves will be changed. Consequently, the programme approach and administrative services must change in order to give continued direction to change. For example, with the introduction and acceptance of commercial fertiliser will come the need for continuous soil testing, credit to assist the cultivator to purchase the fertiliser, godowns to store the fertiliser near the farms, educational programmes about water use, etc. In the overall, *the administrator must view his role as that of a leader in creating conditions of organisation, human relations, financial and physical facilities that enable and encourage the specialists and Village Level Workers to perform their role effectively.*

The Specialists

The specialists must in the beginning accept the fact that *the first objective in Extension Education for Community Development is to change the villagers' existing attitudes so they are favourable toward improving* such matters as animal husbandry, soils, crops, health and formal education. Only when the villager who tills the soil changes his attitude about his methods of farming, family and community living, can one expect him to be concerned about improved agricultural practices such as soil and water conservation, use of fertiliser, use of improved seed, use of insecticides, or better health facilities and community institutions.

The specialist must work through the village extension worker, who in turn must rely on his effective use of extension education methods in getting the villagers' acceptance of the specialist's recommendations. It, therefore, becomes of paramount importance that to be successful the specialist must, in addition to having high technical competence, be knowledgeable about the use of extension educational methods. This means that in making recommendations for village acceptance, the specialist must first clearly set forth the recommendations he expects the villagers to accept. He must then outline an educational programme which, when successfully carried out by the village workers, will result in gaining the villagers' acceptance and application of the specialist's recommendations.

Since the specialist works between administrators and village extension workers, he must be sensitive to the needed administrative programme approaches and be knowledgeable about the process of Extension Education. Furthermore, each specialist must be conscious of the programmes being recommended by other specialists and increasingly grow in his understanding that the village cultivator and his family think and live their life as a whole, not by segments or parts as the specialist works. The lesson here is that each specialist must think about and plan his programme recommendations in terms of how the acceptance of the recommendations will effect and contribute to family life, family living and the family's orientation to making a living.

The Village Extension Worker

The village extension worker can, if he has acquired skill in the use of proven extension methods, educate village people about their problems, get them interested in examining new ways of thinking and doing and help them try out innovations so they can for themselves decide if the new is superior to the old practice.

To be effective in the use of extension methods, the village extension worker must know about all the proven extension methods, how to use each method properly and for what specific purpose a given method or combination of methods should be used. By being trained in the use of extension methods is meant being able to apply effectively in his day to day work appropriate extension methods in the right way. For example: if the village crop yields are low and the village extension worker wants to get the villagers interested in the use of improved seed,

commercial fertiliser or better water use, he may get little response merely by talking to villagers. He will, in all probability, find in every village one or more cultivators who are interested in trying out new practices on a limited basis. If so, this is the time and place for using the result demonstration showing the new alongside the old method.

Village extension workers in particular, and all community development workers in general, should thoroughly understand the basic fact that no one person can be expected to personally have at his finger tips all of the answers to all village problems. It is the function of an extension worker, and the village extension worker in particular, to get the villagers concerned first about their problems and second to want to solve them. Since the temptation will always be great to give ready and quick answers to villagers' questions, training must carefully show the village extension worker that his greatest contribution is in helping the villagers learn how to get and apply information, not in giving quick answers. Since the central objective of Community Development is to develop the people's competence in looking to themselves for solutions to most of their problems, they must through Extension Education be helped to learn how to solve their problems.

The village extension worker is never expected to have high technical competence in any one field and, therefore, is not expected to be able to make highly technical recommendations. He must first and foremost be oriented and trained to function as a village 'stimulator' for change. It is for carrying out this role as the village stimulator for change that he must have the knowledge of all extension methods and be skilled in their use.

The village extension worker must rely heavily on the specialist for technical recommendations and guidance to village people in solving their many problems. His training, therefore, must prepare him to know in what ways he should look to the specialist for help. He must also know at what point in the villagers' process of change each of the specialist's contributions can and should be brought to bear on the problem of village people.

Village people must, through education backed by experience, look to the village extension worker to bring the specialist in as a resource to help them get answers to their problems. In this process of problem recognition and solution seeking, the village extension worker plays a dual role. He first stimulates

in the villagers interest in and concern about the present and then brings them the available resources in the form of the specialist knowledge and recommendations for solving their problems. Finally, he assists the village people in integrating new ideas and shaping them into a pattern of living and of making a living that results in the new becoming more satisfying than the old and thus replacing the old.

In this process of helping village people seek solutions to their problems, village extension workers and specialists must be thoroughly trained and backed up by administration in not pushing people into accepting recommendations ahead of their understanding. A desire for help in solving the problems must always precede the act of urging village people to accept specialist or administrative recommendations with respect to new programmes for change. To be able to work effectively in this process of educating people to want to change and in helping them make changes, requires thorough training of the village extension worker in methods and techniques of helping village people as families, as village communities and as social groups in planning and executing programmes for development.

Philosophy and Evaluation

A strong case has been made for the staff to be trained to be knowledgeable about and skilled in the use of extension methods. The methods must be used, however, by minds which are in the first instance thoroughly indoctrinated in the philosophy and objectives of Community Development. The extension worker must believe that the new India will emerge from the scars of the past only as the people themselves are inspired, trained and guided through education to rebuild their villages. Extension workers must have faith in the people that they will rise to the occasion, give leadership, work together in their cooperatives and *panchayats*, and contribute from their own resources the funds needed to raise agricultural production, to rebuild villages, and to build roads and schools.

Training must emphasise the development of extension workers possessed with a high moral character. The extension worker must be above and beyond reproach. His motto and action must be unselfish service. His reward must be only the knowledge that he is, through his life and work, enriching the lives of others. No person should be worthy of the title of an extension worker who seeks personal gain or accepts extra remuneration

for helping village people find solutions to their problems. Did not all of India's people suffer while they waited for freedom? Is it not the responsibility of all of India's people today to help one another unselfishly share in the fruits of freedom? For one individual to profit at the expense of another is only to have him take the role of the ruler who so long suppressed the people of India and denied them the opportunity to develop.

Since no extension worker can be considered effective unless he maintains a self-critical attitude about himself, his methods and his achievements, objective evaluation must be a part of all training programmes for administrators, specialists and village extension workers. Training in evaluation helps all workers realise the importance of being clear from the first about their programme objectives and the methods chosen to achieve them.

Without continuous evaluation of accomplishments and the effectiveness of various methods, there is always the danger of having done a less effective job than one is capable of doing. In starting programmes, the extension worker must make decisions about areas for emphasis and methods for gaining villager attention and later the acceptance of change. Through continuous evaluation one can increase one's competence by knowing how far one's judgements were correct about what should be emphasised, and what methods have proven sound. In tackling programmes the extension worker must possess the courage to make a start, he must possess the knowledge for sound judgement on how to proceed; he must also possess the good sense to face up to the things which his evaluation shows as do not work. Experience may be defined as something which was tried and through evaluation discarded. A mistake is something one continues to insist upon doing but which is unworkable.

Since training must prepare extension workers to stand on their own feet, it is important that the training emphasises both theoretical presentation and testing in the villages the things taught in the class-rooms.

Great care must be exercised in planning the class-room instruction and the village testing of class-room theories. It must be possible for the trainees to have repeated successful experience in the villages with all the methods learned in the class-room, if they are expected to use those methods when assigned to the Blocks. For the trainees to gain village experience, each

one of them must, while in training, be provided with individual opportunities to use each method appropriately and successfully under village conditions.

There are three specific steps which must be followed in balancing theoretical discussion with village testing of class-room theories. First, the class-room lecturers must clearly outline the purposes of each method and spell out the details for its use. Second, the village practical work must be carefully planned so that each village visit is organised for a clearly understood purpose announced in advance, and is conducted within the village under as nearly ideal circumstances as possible. Only in this manner can the methods be tested and the response observed. Third, following the field testing, class-room discussions should be centered on an evaluation of the village experience.

Training to Use Village Leaders and Non-officials

Since the very essence of Community Development is to inspire and train village people to look to themselves (their leaders, their institutions and their resources) to solve most of their problems, the success of the extension worker in the final analysis will be judged by his success in getting the people to do the things they themselves now look to others to do for them. It is one thing to make this statement and quite another to achieve what is stated. Village people have had limited experience in development. They have traditionally looked to the government to solve their problems. On the other hand, the professional workers of India have not by tradition sought to develop people's confidence in their own ability to solve their problems.

Training must, therefore, reorient the servants of government—the administrator, the specialist, the village extension worker—in a new approach to the village people. This new approach must be purposefully planned. It must be directed toward helping all community development staff understand the importance of focussing all their efforts on helping the village people learn how to do things for themselves, to rely on their own leaders, their own institutions and their own resources for solutions to their own problems.

Training of all staff in Community Development must, therefore, emphasise the importance of helping each village to have a successful experience in its *panchayat* work and in the services rendered by the cooperatives. Training must emphasise the

important role the village school can play in village growth and the very big role the village teacher can be expected to play in stimulating village interest in new ways of thinking and new ways of doing things. Youth clubs, farmers' forums and clubs for village women should be looked upon as important agencies of helping village people express themselves and learn how they can, by working together, solve their problems.

The conclusion is inescapable. All training must emphasise the extension worker's role in the development of village leaders and village institutions. Only when the village has alert, unselfish leaders and a strong cooperative, *panchayat*, and school, can it practice self-help.

Conclusion

Standards for professional proficiency are constantly rising in all fields of endeavour. Professional skill and know-how found adequate last year in the field of rural development will not be adequate this year. The trend is likely to continue. Such a trend is evidence of progress itself. It is an intricate and complex educational task to design and execute extension programmes that significantly change the action of large numbers of rural people. This process challenges the artistry of the greatest leaders in rural development. Education is the central force in effective extension work for rural development. This is so because the mark made on people by such a programme is measured not by what is done for them but by what the programme causes them to do for themselves. For effective extension educational leadership for Community Development, a gap must exist between what the professionals know and can do and what the followers know and can do. This is the primary condition from which all professional leadership ultimately derives its usefulness and sanction.

CHAPTER V

ROLE, ORGANISATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF EXTENSION TRAINING CENTRES

J. C. Ramchandani

THE COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT Programme in India, which is essentially an educational activity, aims at building up the capacity of the individual and that of the community for continuous self-improvement toward economic development, social change and democratic growth. The only medium through which the desired changes can be brought about is Extension Education, which has now been recognised as the process and also the method for promoting better living for the individual as well as the community.

Extension has been defined and interpreted in different ways in different countries, but all these point to the basic idea of sustained improvement of both the individual and the community through educational processes. Extension, as defined by the Food and Agricultural Organisation of the United Nations, is "concerned with agricultural education aimed at assisting rural people to bring about continuous improvement in their physical, economic and social well-being through individual and cooperative efforts. It makes available to rural people scientific and other factual information and training and guidance in the application of such information to the solution of problems of agriculture and rural life." Extension Education is, thus, both the system of education and the service designed to help people meet their needs. Accordingly, the extent of understanding the educative process and acquiring skills in applying extension methods by the extension workers will determine the extent of their success in promoting the overall development of the people.

Need for Trained Extension Staff

Reliance on the process of education involving the individual and the community may appear rather Utopian in conditions obtaining in India at present. It is perhaps true of all under-developed countries where development programmes are undertaken that the necessary initiative to stimulate and promote community activities may not be initially forthcoming from the people themselves. Extraneous stimuli may have to be applied to arouse and maintain the participation of people in programmes of self-help.

In India, the educational process of making rural people aware of their problems and indicating to them ways and means by which they can solve them is being provided by the National Extension Service agency under the Community Development Programme. In this agency, the multipurpose workers—the Gram Sevaks and the Gram Sevikas—form the ultimate link with the rural people. They ceaselessly strive to assist the rural people in the educational enterprise through participation in extension activities. This requires training and planned efforts to create situations in which the functionaries at the village level can develop the necessary qualities associated with their professional tasks of Extension Education. Situations for imparting the necessary knowledge and developing the desired skills are sought to be created in Extension Training Centres. The aims of these Centres are to help trainees acquire useful knowledge, develop an understanding of the methods of transmitting the knowledge to villagers, and develop ways of encouraging their participation and the local initiative. These Centres also aim at inculcating a missionary zeal and the spirit of rural development work in the trainees. Obviously, on the extent and manner that Gram Sevaks and Gram Sevikas are trained in Extension Education and organisation of village institutions will ultimately depend the success of the Community Development Programme.

Abilities Required of Extension Workers

If the extension worker is to be potentially effective in influencing and building up individuals and communities, he has to develop certain qualities and competencies upon which to draw while performing his numerous duties in the field. Based on experience, leading extension educationalists have focussed attention on the desirability of inculcating in the extension

workers certain qualities essential in the process of Extension Education. Dr. J. Paul Leagans, an eminent Extension Education expert, has propounded that to be an effective extension worker, certain important skills have to be acquired and competencies developed. These include a clear understanding of the role of the extension service and how it operates ; skill in human relations ; knowledge and understanding of technical subject-matter appropriate to one's job ; ability to plan ; ability to do things with one's own hands ; ability to clarify objectives and state them in a way that they are useful in guiding extension activity ; ability to organise people and things ; skill at communications ; skill at seeing the relationship between principle and practice ; skill at enquiry ; ability to provide learning experiences or to teach ; ability to evaluate the achievements and methods of programmes.

Role of Extension Training Centres

The development of desired competencies in extension workers presupposes proper recruitment, proper training and careful orientation to the demands and new situations arising from objectives envisaged in a given programme. The responsibility of imparting the desired training to Gram Sevaks and Gram Sevikas devolves on the Extension Training Centres and the attached Home Science Wings. These are, in fact, the temples of learning for the village level functionaries who ultimately reflect the efforts contributed by them.

The success of the extension worker trained at the Training Centres is a natural outcome of the quality of training imparted in the Centres. For promoting extension training, the training institution has to be equipped with training staff, physical facilities, teaching equipment and a suitable syllabus. The syllabus should not only outline the important subjects of training and their theoretical and practical aspects, but also the guiding points of the subjects included to meet the basic requirements of the programme.

The staffing pattern and facilities available in the Training Centres should be established in relation to the subject-matter and methods appropriate to achieve the objectives. Full-time instructors for teaching different subjects should be appointed, library and physical facilities in the form of buildings, furniture, equipment and necessary audio-visual aids should be provided for creating effective teaching and learning situations.

Opportunities should be provided to the trainees to do practical work on the agricultural farm attached to the Centres. Visits to villages should be arranged to stimulate active interest among the trainees in thinking, planning and executing jobs pertaining to different subjects so as to acquire the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes to carry out their assigned jobs effectively. The Training Centre with all its components in the form of staff, syllabus, library and physical facilities has to be so administered and managed as to be conducive to the development of the desired qualities in the trainees.

Evolution of Extension Training Centres

In the early stages of the Community Development Programme in India, the training of Gram Sevaks was initiated with the establishment of five Training-cum-development Projects. Subsequently, 43 Extension Training Centres were started, which provided a six months' training course for the Gram Sevaks. The subjects taught to them included agriculture, animal husbandry, public health, social education and extension methods. But it was soon realised that the six months' training needed considerable reinforcement in basic agricultural sciences. Consequently, 53 Basic Agricultural Schools were established in 1953 and 1954 and the period of training raised to $1\frac{1}{2}$ years—one year's training in basic agriculture followed by six months' training in extension methods and other related subjects. To meet the additional requirement of trained Gram Sevaks, necessitated by the decision to cover the entire country by the National Extension Service Blocks by the end of the Second Plan period, 13 additional Extension Training Centres and 25 Basic Agricultural Schools were established.

However, in the year 1958, it was decided to stagger the allotment of Blocks to the Third Plan and thereby complete the setting up of Blocks by October, 1963. The programme for the training of Gram Sevaks had thus to be suitably modified. This opportunity was utilised for giving effect to the recommendations made by several conference groups on Extension Education and by the Committee on Plan Projects Study Team on Community Projects, that the training of Gram Sevaks was inadequate, particularly with reference to agriculture, and that the period of training be extended to at least two years. A two-year integrated

training course accordingly was introduced and the syllabus was suitably amended to meet the changed requirements.

During the first few years of the Community Development Programme, development work among women remained almost neglected. The reason for this indifference was mainly the dearth of trained village women workers. But in July 1955, a humble beginning was made to also include women in the programme. In that year, 27 Home Science Wings were attached to selected Extension Training Centres, which provided one year's training in home science to the Gram Sevikas. It was decided at that time to post two Gram Sevikas in each Intensive Development Block. With the decision to abolish the distinction between the National Extension Service Blocks and the Intensive Development Blocks, and to provide two Gram Sevikas for each Development Block, the expansion of the training facilities for the Gram Sevikas was initiated early in 1959 by increasing the capacity of admission from 20 to 40 trainees in 24 of the existing Home Science Wings and further establishing 20 new Home Science Wings with a capacity of admitting 40 trainees a year each.

The need for training the Gram Sevaks in youth activities was also realised and suitable steps to promote this activity were taken in hand. A syllabus drawn up for the purpose was incorporated in the syllabus for the two-year integrated course. One instructor in each Extension Training Centre was given suitable orientation training in organising village youth for productive work. It was further decided to organise ten youth clubs around each Extension Training Centre.

With a view to promoting the use of improved agricultural implements, it was considered necessary to organise the training of village artisans, and to a lesser extent the Gram Sevaks, in the repair, maintenance and, under certain circumstances, the manufacture, of improved agricultural implements. Accordingly, Workshop Wings were attached to 25 of the Extension Training Centres on an experimental basis. In these Workshop Wings, training in the maintenance and improvement of agricultural implements is imparted.

The organisation of the Extension Training Centres has thus undergone a continuous process of change to meet the growing requirements of training for the Community Development Programme. The training programme of the Village Level Workers is indeed a fascinating one, but, is, nevertheless fraught

with numerous responsibilities and formidable difficulties. The trained extension workers mirror the efforts of the Training Centres. To the extent the Gram Sevaks and Gram Sevikas are well-equipped, having received the requisite training, the existence of these Training Centres stands vindicated.

Shortcomings of the Extension Training Centres

An assessment of the quality of the workers produced and their actual attainments in the face of varied and complex problems enables those responsible for the organisation and administration of the Extension Training Centres to locate and identify the strength as well as the weaknesses inherent in these Centres.

Experience has shown that the village level functionaries have, no doubt, proved to be useful instruments for carrying the Community Development message to the villages. Nevertheless, they have certain weaknesses discernible, both as cause and effect, which may be attributed to the limitations of the training programme and thereby the training institutions. Most of the factors responsible for the shortcomings in the Extension Training Centres are administrative and organisational in nature.

The problem of limitations inherent in the training of village level functionaries has been periodically studied, scrutinised and discussed. Views expressed by outstanding experts and committees dwell upon the desirability of improving the quality of training and investing the training institutions with a sense of purpose and direction to meet the evergrowing needs and requirements of the Community Development Programme.

The New Outlook

The realisation of the manifold shortcomings in the training imparted at the Extension Training Centres, if viewed in the right perspective of the realistic requirements of the Community Development Programme, leads to a consideration of a wide range of factors that fall both within and outside the areas of content and method of training. The entire training programme and its approach is interlinked with the task of rural development designed to proliferate through the extension agency with the active participation of the individual and his community.

The aim of the Community Development Programme is to bring about desirable change in human behaviour through educational processes, the programme *per se* being educational

in its philosophy, in its focus and in its objectives. Accordingly, the approach and the methods for bringing about the desired transformation have to be educational in character. The only effective means to subserve the purpose is now recognised as Extension Education. The training programme has, therefore, to be oriented and shifted at the earliest possible time to an approach, content, emphasis and procedure that will impart high-quality training in the process of Extension Education and the technology necessary for village development.

Whereas the staff, syllabus and physical facilities comprise the potential components of a Training Centre, the content, methods and techniques constitute the vehicles to create the necessary impact on the trainees in the institutions. The entire efforts of the Training Centres have, therefore, to be canalised in the singular direction of imparting useful subject-matter and developing an understanding of Extension Education and skill with extension methods with a view to equipping the extension agency functionaries to perform efficiently the tasks expected of them.

An essential prerequisite for a proper understanding of the role of the Training Centres would, therefore, be to spell out in clear terms the nature, objectives, purpose, and activities of the entire training programme. The idea and philosophy of Community Development as an end, and the extension educational process as the means for attaining it have to be increasingly understood and transmitted by all concerned with the training activities. Achievement of the ends depends upon the effective use of the means. These need to be developed and assimilated initially at the Extension Training Centres, whose capacity and effectiveness have to be consolidated and enlarged.

The entire programme of training imparted at the Extension Training Centres requires to be moulded into a homogeneous and coordinated system. It must instil firmly in the staff as well as in the trainees a thorough knowledge and understanding of the extension education process and skill in its use. Considerations of merit for the job, professional qualifications including both training and experience should weigh heavily in the appointment of staff to the Training Centres. Selection of competent personnel imbued with the spirit and philosophy of rural development has to be ensured in meeting the staff requirements of the training institutions. Since the accent is on improving the quality of training, the importance of the staff with requisite attainments cannot be over-emphasised.

The programme of the Training Centre needs closer re-examination to bring it in alignment with the Block programme and village problems. *Prima facie*, the training has to be essentially utilitarian. Accordingly, due emphasis has to be placed on understanding, assimilating and disseminating knowledge related to realistic rural problems. Such an approach would imply a shift from the *deductive* approach which emphasises acquisition of knowledge as the end of training to the *inductive* approach that is problem-oriented.

A system of priorities has to be adopted in the training programme at the Centres in order to place due emphasis on crucial problems emanating from the growing requirements of the programme. The relative over-emphasis in the Training Centres on the social aspects of rural development may have to give way to much greater emphasis on its economic aspects. Nevertheless, social and aesthetic needs and moral values should continue to influence both the form and content of the entire process.

The syllabus that outlines the curriculum of studies for the Training Centres has to be so framed and organised as to be related to realistic village problems. Both the subject-matter and method of teaching have to be oriented to the requirements of the extension educational process. In view of importance attributed to agricultural production, necessary provision has to be made, *inter alia*, for teaching important aspects of agricultural economics, farm management and farm planning to lend effectiveness and utility to the Community Development Programme. With the inclusion of these subjects, the teaching programme would be more realistically dispersed.

The training processes should be based on the fundamental principle that people learn through seeing, hearing and doing and, accordingly, successful teaching should entail the use of suitable audio-visual aids that can be designed and applied to meet local requirements. The usage of such aids should be conducted to the extent and in the manner in which the trainees would be expected to take recourse to such aids in their village work. The method of instruction in the class-room and in the field needs to be supplemented by discussions to ensure that the knowledge sought to be acquired is understandable and capable of being reconveyed by the trainees. Group discussions will also lend an ideal opportunity for teaching based on case histories actually collected from the experiences of Gram Sevaks and Gram Sevikas

working in the field, or encountered by the staff members during their visits to rural areas. The use of case histories extensively in teaching is considered to be an effective method to help people learn how to relate separate items or projects to a whole situation. The instructors have to so arrange teaching as to lead their trainees through a problem-solving process.

The trainees should be carefully drilled in the scientific analysis of problems by making them undergo each constituent leading to its solution. Having recognised and identified a problem, all facts and information pertaining to the problem need to be collected, compiled and processed. The analysis of these facts logically leads to the decision-making stage and to the formulation of working plans to carry out the decision. In most cases, necessary skills may have to be acquired to execute the action.

Extension teaching should make effective use of practical demonstrations involving direct and active participation of the trainees. Practicals must be so designed and conducted as to be essentially education-oriented rather than labour-oriented, and the latter should be considered as subservient to the former, or only a means, and not an end. In the teaching process, the practicals should have a specific purpose, predetermined by values with a view to providing opportunities for the trainees to understand the ideas and implications involved in the jobs later expected of them. A careful re-examination of the system of practicals at the Training Centres is necessary to ensure useful objectives, the proper role of practicals in the training programme, effective procedures and methods for obtaining the objectives, inclusion of activities essentially educational in character, preparation of regular schedules conforming to the training requirements, and staff responsibility in planning and supervising the practicals involving such procedures as are of educational value.

In any educational institution, a well-equipped library plays a vital role in the teaching process. The usefulness of libraries, effectively managed under improved physical conditions in the Training Centres, has been abundantly realised by educational experts everywhere. The training programme in an Extension Training Centre covers varied subjects related to rural development. So, in the teaching process and also in research work, frequent reference has to be made to books and other material pertaining to the subjects. Most of the Extension Training Centres still have inadequate library facilities and plans

for using them. Increasing attention should invariably be given to establish properly-equipped libraries under improved physical conditions and their efficient management and constant utilisation ensured both by the staff and the trainees. Observations made on the management and utilisation of the libraries apply *mutatis mutandis* to other facilities available at the Training Centres.

The management of the Training Centres merits consideration for achieving better and effective coordination in the training activities on the one hand and the staff and trainees on the other. A lack of coordination at the Training Centres inevitably results in misunderstandings, personal conflicts, avoidable delays and slow progress. Problems arising out of lack of coordination mostly lie in the realms of administration, organisation and policy, but these can be circumvented by a better understanding and appreciation of the objectives and implications of the training task by those involved in the training programme.

In all respects, the Centres should serve as a symbol of things good and progressive in Community Development. They should strive to set and demonstrate desirable standards in every respect and should in part be judged by this criterion. The quality of the trainees produced by the Centres depends upon the quality of the training of the staff and the institutional facilities available in relation to the objectives of the training programme.

Selected References

Community Development in India. V. T. Krishnamachari, Publications Division, Government of India, New Delhi, 1958.

Critical Analysis of India's Community Development Programme. Carl C. Taylor. Ministry of Community Development and Cooperation, Government of India, New Delhi, 1956.

Education and the Social Order. Bertrand Russel, George Allen and Unwin, London, 1956.

Evaluation Reports on Community Development. Programme Evaluation Organisation, Planning Commission, Government of India, New Delhi.

Extension. Vol. 2, No. 4, 1957, Vol. 3, Nos. 2, 3 and 4, 1958, Directorate of Extension, Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Government of India, New Delhi.

Guide-book Developed by the Principals of Extension Training Centres at the First All India Work Seminar. Directorate of Extension, Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Government of India, New Delhi, 1959.

Proceedings of the First Conference of Principals of Extension Training Centres. Directorate of Extension, Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Government of India, New Delhi, 1954.

Proceedings of the Third Conference of Principals of Extension Training Centres. Directorate of Extension, Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Government of India, New Delhi, 1956.

Report of a Community Development Evaluation Mission in India. M. J. Coldwell, R. Dumont and M. Read, Ministry of Community Development and Cooperation, Government of India, New Delhi, 1959.

Report of the Expert Committee on Training. Ministry of Community Development and Cooperation, Government of India, New Delhi, 1957.

Report of the Team for the Study of Community Projects and National Extension Service. Committee on Plan Projects, Government of India, New Delhi, 1957.

Training the Village Level Workers. J. V. A. Nehemiah, Extension, Vol. 4, No. 4, October, 1959, Directorate of Extension, Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Government of India, New Delhi.

CHAPTER VI

ADMINISTRATIVE COORDINATION AND TEAM WORK IN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

A. Prakash

THE EXISTING ADMINISTRATIVE machinery in India was inherited from the British. Its general framework and pattern, though modified to suit changing conditions, has remained basically intact. The most important change that has occurred since Independence is that the administrative structure at various levels has been transformed into an extension agency for the implementation of the Community Development Programme. In terms of the tasks allotted to it, the administration now derives its guidance and inspiration from the Constitution and its Directive Principles.

Administration in India has three broad categories of tasks—development, revenue and law. A large administrative machinery designed to discharge a number of tasks is naturally complex in nature and is composed of specialised sections dealing primarily with different functions involved in the total task. Regulatory machinery is certainly vital to the integrity of the nation and safety of the individual. But a superstructure of a developmental machinery in a welfare state is absolutely necessary. Coordination at all levels is the essence of the effective working of this machinery. Some kind of coordination at the district level did, in the past, become prominent in times of crises like famine, flood and epidemic even in the British days, but it did not obtain as a system.

Present Situation

India has a democratic form of government and is following a policy of planned development through Five Year Plans. It is now accepted that planning to be realistic must be from the

bottom upwards. Since Community Development embraces all facets of man's life, its planning has to be totalled and integrated with other plans at all levels—village, *panchayat*, Block, district, etc. The plan has to be comprehensive rather than itemised and must ensure a balanced development in different fields. It must also enable a balanced utilisation of human and material resources.

The National Extension Service is an agency for ensuring such a balanced and comprehensive development in rural areas. Right from the Development Commissioner to the Village Level Worker, it is conceived as an organisation which has to play the role of a coordinator between the different development programmes in agriculture, animal husbandry, cooperation, communications, health, etc., so that requisite priorities in development are observed and yet a balanced progress is ensured. The Development Commissioner is essentially a coordinator. So are District Collectors and Block Development Officers at their levels.

Administration is no longer conceived as an autocratic enforcement of law and exercise of coercive powers. On the contrary, it is a process of democratic leadership. A good administrator has to provide the necessary supervisory and educational leadership and guidance. He has to create conditions and an atmosphere in which development work can proceed smoothly and the various agencies involved in it work harmoniously. This new role of administration is much better appreciated today than at the beginning of the programme in 1952-53, but it is still not fully understood and practised.

Coordination and Its Implications

Coordination can perhaps be best defined not by specifying what it connotes, but rather by specifying what it does not imply. Coordination is not subordination. Subordination means subjection or surrender of the initiative of the subordinate to the will of the superior. Nor is it disordination which is between equals working for conflicting purposes largely, mutually cancelling each other's efforts. This is obviously wasteful. Coordination is not even integration, although sometimes the two terms are used as if they were synonyms. Subordination is impossible when the skill and knowledge required in different branches are widely different and the total task undertaken is far too big for any single person to direct. An imperfect analogy

of the difference between coordination and integration-cum-subordination is provided by a cooperative farm and a collective farm. In a cooperative farm each individual member retains his identity and interest (even his property rights), while in a collective farm all interests are merged, all the property belongs to the State and workers only earn their wages.

Coordination is between equals or near-equals working together. In it each agency retains its identity, objectives and functions as well as responsibilities. It, however, willingly surrenders a small part of its individuality in return for the advantage of working together with other agencies, thereby ultimately securing better service for all concerned. The coordinator, therefore, is a general-purpose man charged with the responsibility of ensuring a total balanced effort but is not expected to control or guide the technical details of the programme and the policies of the technical agencies or departments.

Team Work

Where coordination exists, team work automatically follows. For, the members of the group or team headed by a leader or a captain will then work in harmony with one another and with a commonly conceived and accepted purpose in mind. Good team work presupposes good understanding among the 'players' as to the place and function of each in the 'game' to be played. Also, they readily accept the authority and leadership of the captain whose counsel is sought and whose orders are willingly obeyed. The leader of the team in turn believes in joint consultation, fair play and justice. He is the type of person who would not claim credit for any good game or victory for himself, but rather would praise the team. In short, the captain should be looked upon by the members of the team not as a boss but as a big brother. Team work is further facilitated by display of good humour on the part of the leader as well as the members of the team. While personal factors play an important part in determining the actual situation, there are certain desiderata for good team work or fruitful coordination. Some of these are:

1. Equality or near-equality in status, rank, etc., not too much disparity in pay and prospects. For instance, it will be desirable to have the same scale of pay for all the extension workers in a Block. Similarly, instructors in a Training Centre should receive

remuneration in the same scale of pay.

2. Conviction, or at least strong belief, that joint thinking and mutual consultation are productive of far better results than pure individual or department thinking, particularly where the objective is development of the community.
3. Common outlook and attitude born of common orientation training. Belief that cooperative effort and team work produce more productive and lasting results than individual, uncooperative or uncoordinated endeavour.
4. Acceptance of the idea and institution of a coordinator or a sort of captain of the team.

The above four characteristics must be applied not only at the Block but also at the District and State levels. Otherwise, coordination at the Block level will be infructuous. The pattern must be set from the top.

Difficulties and Their Solution

In practice, there are a number of difficulties in effecting administrative coordination and ensuring team work at any level. One of these is typified in the word 'departmentalism' which inevitably leads to group loyalties. The ego of individuals and their variety in terms of character, outlook, etc., are others. Then again, hierarchial levels in the administration create bottlenecks, impede communication and easy flow of ideas and instructions. Most of these difficulties can be solved through proper instructions and a strategy of work, the main purpose of which should be to emphasise team work rather than individual achievements.

There are, however, no rigid or set principles or techniques which can be followed blindly. To ensure proper coordination and good team work, situations have to be tackled as they arise, bearing in mind the main criteria already mentioned. There are, of course, a number of known techniques and methods which are in fact being practised at various levels to ensure good team work. Staff meetings furnish a good opportunity to iron out angularities, to remove suspicions and to create a better understanding of one another's point of view. This is a case of informal and yet effective indoctrination. Secondly, technical experts must be given proper status and recognition and should invariably be consulted

on their subjects. The more they are consulted and their advice respected the better the cooperation they will extend. Thirdly, at every level there must be inner democratisation, uninhibited, free and friendly consultations, common or pooled thinking, emphasis on cooperative effort and, above all, deliberate avoidance of stress on status and authority between co-workers.

Similarly, the levels above and the levels below a given person's position must be properly and fruitfully integrated so far as development work is concerned and should not work at cross purposes. Easy communication and readiness to help is the essence of this vertical integration. Fourthly, the leader, whether at the Block or any other level, must know and practise the technique of conducting group discussions. He, more than anybody else, must understand and appreciate the position of different workers in the team and give everyone, more particularly the workers at the lower level, due recognition and status. It is also necessary to encourage a free flow of ideas from the bottom to the top so that guidance from the top is more fruitful and of practical utility.

Importance of Training

The understanding of and dedication to a common objective is one of the important ways of ensuring team work and coordination between workers at the same level. It is with this main purpose in view that India has embarked upon a comprehensive orientation training programme. All workers at the Block level are brought together in orientation courses at the Orientation Training Centres. Technical officers at the District level, senior Block Development Officers and non-officials are also being similarly oriented through study courses.

The Central Institute of Study and Research in Community Development conducts common study courses for officers, both technical and administrative, of the level of Collector and above as well as Members of Parliament and State Legislatures. It has also become necessary to associate non-officials with the training programme, since Community Development as a programme cannot really succeed without the fullest support and coordination of the representatives of the people at various levels. Community Development is a people's programme. This training has become all the more necessary as a result of the new process of democratic decentralisation being introduced in the various states.

Conclusion

The idea of administrative coordination and team work is inherent in the very concept of Community Development as a field programme. The exact purpose and ramifications of coordination at various levels were but dimly perceived in the early stage of the programme in India. But as the movement gathered momentum and the administrative machinery got more and more transformed into a developmental or extension organisation, coordination and team work became the watch-words of all community development workers. Wherever these workers at various levels have shown team spirit and put in coordinated effort, the programme has forged ahead. Where too much departmentalism and lack of coordination has occurred, performance has been invariably poor. A stage has now been reached where the need and value of coordination and team work are fully appreciated and accepted, not only by the officials but also by non-officials. This is a happy augury for the future growth of the Community Development Programme in India.

PART TWO

PROGRAMME DEVELOPMENT

A Gram Sevak in Gujarat discussing with village leaders cultivation plans for the next season

Programmes developed with—not only for and by—people have the best chances of success.

Extension Workers and villagers in Rajasthan in front of the new school building constructed by their joint efforts

Good programmes result from the joint efforts of the technically trained workers and progressive villagers.

CHAPTER VII

PROGRAMME PLANNING TO MEET PEOPLE'S NEEDS

J. Paul Leagans

RURAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES are created and maintained for influencing people to make changes in their way of living and of making a living. The existence of such programmes implies that the present situation of the rural people is not what it should and could be, that something different should prevail, and that it is possible through appropriate action to attain a more desirable status for them. From this assumption another one arises: that it is possible and feasible for a person or group of persons—officials, non-officials or a combination of both—to identify the nature of new conditions that could and should prevail, and devise means for achieving them. Hence, the entire process of planning for rural development implies a need for change. The question then arises: change from *what*, to *what*, by *whom*, *where* and *by what methods*?

Changes that are important to people are those that help them meet their needs for biological, economic, social, aesthetic and moral well-being. Basically, all programmes for rural development, like India's National Extension Service, exist to help people meet their needs. If programmes do not do this, people in free-choice societies will not long participate in them. The element of people's needs, therefore, becomes a central concern of planners for rural development. If a society is to find ways to adjust itself so that people meet their needs for an improved economic status, for being more useful citizens and for enjoying a higher degree of social satisfaction, it must identify these conditions and plan realistically to achieve them.

What needs do people have? How can needs be identified? What plan of priority should be set up for meeting people's

needs? What resources are necessary to meet people's needs? How should resources be organised and directed to help people meet their needs? These questions give the key orientation and justification for rural programme planning.

The Nature and Role of Planning

The controlling objective of India's National Extension Service is to develop in village people the ability to make a better living and to live a more satisfying life as individuals, as family members and as citizens of their community, state and nation. How to attain this objective is the key problem confronting the architects and current leaders of the scheme.

The first step in any systematic attempt to promote rural development is to prepare a useful programme. The term programme indicates focus, priority and design. It assumes the ability among the planners to distinguish important needs from unimportant ones. Such a programme must be based on people's needs to make it significant and on their interests to make it effective. "If we could but know where we are now, and where we ought to go, we could better judge what to do, and how to do it." This statement by Abraham Lincoln lies at the heart of the nature and role of planning for rural development. Effective programmes for rural improvement do not just happen; they have to be built. Planning does not go on in a vacuum, or automatically; it has to be made to happen. Good programmes are not developed merely by wishing for them, but by working for them.

The need for planning arises from the complexity and from the importance of the job to be done. Planning is a necessary aspect of any activity that is too involved to be disposed of off-hand. The use of planning is to discover and prepare the way for action that should be taken. Planning gives meaning and system to action. It prepares the basis for a course of future action. Possibly, the most basic fact giving rise to planning is that effective rural development results from choice, not from chance; it results from design, not from drift; it results from a plan, not by trial and error. Hence, effective work is an intentional effort carefully designed to attain certain specific and predetermined goals assumed to be important.

The use of programme planning stems from a belief in the need for change that results in progress, and from the view that

change in certain directions is good for those affected by it. Planning must, therefore, result in programmes that help people find more satisfactory modes of living and of making a living. Planning assumes that the programme, or the lack of one, followed in the past will not do the job in the present and the future.

Designing programmes for rural development is one of the most difficult tasks confronting rural development workers. This is so because planners must avoid programming that has superimposed characteristics and instead assure programmes that have roots among the people. The problem is complex because the components of rural programming are complex. People, their needs, their interests, useful technology, educational process, analysing situations, making decisions about what should be done, determining useful action, projecting the desired shape of things into the future and such other components of rural programming are rarely simple. Programme planning for rural development has but little research support, a wide range of patterns of approach, and consequently requires great imagination and judgement on the part of the planners.

Good programme planning is primarily an intellectual activity, for it usually involves a study and use of facts and principles. It requires knowledge, imagination and reasoning ability. Often it requires a mastery over special skills and techniques of research. It is basically a process of making decisions that will carry into the future. If these decisions are not made wisely, they may not lead to useful attainment. Decisions have to be made about what the present situation is, how it could and ought to be changed and what means can be used to accomplish the new and more desirable situation. Finally, good planning for rural development requires the ability to synthesise facts and value judgements in a process of sound decision-making about the objectives the programmes should seek to attain, and what courses of action are most likely to achieve them. The ability to plan requires :

1. an understanding of the nature and function of planning,
2. skill in formulating planning procedures,
3. skill in identifying problems and needs,
4. ability to decide on significant objectives and goals,
5. skill in formulating means and wise courses of action to attain objectives, and
6. skill in involving key leaders in the planning process.

The first condition of success for any programme to promote

rural development is a widespread belief in the usefulness to a large number of people. Good plans are to the professional rural worker what the compass is to the seaman.

Some Guides to Planning

The broad aims set forth for India's Community Development Programme are great and important. They are complex and far-reaching. They are significant and difficult to achieve. But they are assumed to be worthy of effort, since foremost in the order of things they embody are social, economic and human values to which the new India is committed. The process through which these aims were derived was a long and tedious one involving many people, much study, interpretation of facts and careful application of judgement in arriving at final decisions. In short, a massive programme-planning job was done. Plans for rural development are usually made best when a number of propositions are followed in the planning process.

1. *Effective rural development programmes must have clear and significant objectives.* An objective is that which a person, group or agency sets before itself as an object or condition to be attained. Programme objectives designate directions of movement. Since that is so, objectives properly become the focus of primary material and human resources for attaining change. Maximum progress can be made only when the objectives are clear, full commitment of resources is made to achieving them and effective use is made of the resources.

If there is to be progress and not mere evolution in the development of people, the objectives of the programme must be clearly and periodically determined in view of progress and changed conditions. It should be kept in mind that not all people need or desire to move in the same direction or for the same distances. Directions have varying degrees of importance to different people. Extension workers must be prepared to offer opportunity for people to move in various directions. This is what is really meant by the term balanced programme. Thus, a good programme objective is one that provides possible direction for large numbers of people to move some distance, a direction in which they want and need to go. Extension workers must help people define the directions in which they want and need to move, then provide them assistance in travelling in those directions. This is really the essence of extension work for Community Development.

These facts place great importance on the wise choice of purposes. For, if the choice of purposes is not made well, the resources committed to their attainment will be poorly used. This is a mistake the leaders of India's rural development scheme can ill afford to make, especially at a time like the present when the objectives to be achieved are so numerous and so great and resources for achieving them so few and so small.

2. *To achieve the broad purposes of Community Development requires planning at the top level and also at lower levels including the state, district, Block and village.* Deciding purposes at these lower levels requires a degree of specificity that results in objectives being moved from the level of glittering generality to the level of practical reality. Identifying the most useful purposes, assigning a priority to them and developing effective means of achieving them at the local level is an intricate process which must be handled with great skill. If the statement of purposes at higher levels is to be realistic and useful in guiding the programme at lower levels, it must be re-formulated at each lower level to align it with varying situations.

3. *There are no unplanned programmes.* Programme development is a relative matter. The quality of a programme is related to the extent to which certain steps are taken that are essential in planning. A number of crucial questions about programming must be asked and their answers taken into account in the planning process. Proper answers to them will improve the preciseness with which programmes are developed. These questions are :

(a) To whom and to how many people is the programme important ?
(b) In what way is the programme significant to people—economically, socially, aesthetically, or morally ?
(c) What is the relative importance of programme objectives ?
(d) Who thinks the programme is important—nation, state, district, Block, village ?
(e) Who arrived at the programme objectives ?
(f) On what amounts and kinds of information is the programme based ?
(g) Does the programme reflect significant needs and interest of large numbers of people ?
(h) Who is acquainted with the programme and its purposes ?

(i) How clearly conceived and understood is the programme by those who are to participate in its execution?

(j) What would be the likely consequences in one, five or ten years if work on certain parts of the programme is not carried out?

4. *The most effective rural development programmes result when there is general agreement among village, Block, district, state and national officials on three important items.* Village and Block workers in order to plan the most effective programmes need to agree on (a) a basic philosophy regarding programme development, (b) a clear policy that reflects the basic philosophy, and (c) a workable procedure that gives general direction but provides ample latitude for adjustments needed to meet local situations. Questions like the following may serve as a guide for this purpose:

(a) What is the relative importance of programme development as a step in the rural development process?

(b) Who should participate in programme development and in what way?

(c) How much time should be allocated to the task of planning?

(d) Should a so-called long-range programme be developed in each village and Block?

(e) Upon what kinds and amounts of factual information should the programme be based and how should this information be collected?

(f) To what extent should procedures provide for participation of people at the village and Block level?

(g) Should the different phases of a Block programme be organised into a single overall unified programme?

(h) What is the role of the technical specialist in Block and village programme development?

(i) To what extent should leaders among the villagers participate and which method is most useful for providing this opportunity?

In relation to these questions there are many different points of view depending on established policy and other factors. But experience and sound principles of good programming suggest that such questions should be considered with care. One point of view suggests that when numerous problems are evident, as

in Indian villages, decisions are easily made about what should be done. This argument has validity. But merely making decisions about what should be done is not enough. Also important is how the decisions are made, on what facts are they based, who participates in making them and what priority is to be followed in meeting the needs.

5. *Programmes are most effective when based on adequate and current facts pertaining to local conditions as well as those related to national and regional situations.* No rural development programme or any of its parts can be any better than the facts on which it is based. A programme must be based on adequate and current facts about the situation at all levels and related factors that influence it in order to be most effective. To be useful, these facts must finally be carefully analysed and interpreted through the joint efforts of the technically trained staff and progressive village leaders. Facts about the local situation and others affecting it form the foundation upon which the Block staff and village leaders, working on various community development problems, build and carry out an effective programme. When properly weighed on the scales of people's values, these facts reflect local needs and the enlightened desires of people. Moreover, they show not only what people think they want, but also what is best for them. To define rural problems it is necessary to consider both scientific and folk knowledge. Thus, the true basis for a programme lies in the needs and problems of the individual, the home, the farm and the community.

The fact cannot be overstressed that local conditions furnish the basic problems with which rural development programmes must deal. People are most concerned about facts relating to their immediate situation as it affects them personally. Community development workers and local leaders use properly interpreted facts about local conditions to show how these facts directly and personally affect the people. In this way interest is aroused and indications found that lead to the solution to problems. Facts about the local situation help to identify problems and needs with which the people are concerned by pointing out the gaps between what is and what should be, by indicating shortages and by drawing attention to undesirable trends. To have adequate facts about a local situation, data that generally fall into these four categories must be obtained.

(a) Current trends and outlook.

(b) The people themselves—their needs, interests, knowledge, social organisation, etc.
(c) Physical factors about agriculture, industry, health, sanitation, etc.
(d) Community problems—communication, education, etc.

6. *Selection of a relatively small number of the most significant needs singled out for major attention contributes to the effectiveness of rural development programmes.* When the resources for promoting rural development are limited, a programme cannot successfully be at the same time all things to all people. To identify problems or needs that are important is a relatively easy task, but it is not enough. Problems must be found that are not only important but that are most important. Consequently, some careful choice-making must be done. Since it is physically impossible to deal simultaneously with all the needs of people in a Block or village, it is necessary to sort out for special attention those needs that are of greatest importance at a given time, thus developing a scheme of priority for dealing with items in the programme. Programme elements may then be arranged according to relative amounts of time and other resources committed to them. Research quite clearly supports the idea that no single exposure of a person to a recommendation will usually produce much action. Getting the adoption of new practices generally requires that recommendations be brought to people's attention on several occasions spread over a period of time. It is necessary then, in cooperation with village leaders, to ferret out the most significant problems and weave them into the core of a vital and dynamic village and Block development programme. The most significant problems can then be attacked with all the resources of the programme which collectively form a powerful force for economic and social change.

7. *Skilful involvement of progressive village leaders is fundamental in planning rural development programmes.* A synthesis of experience in planning rural programmes makes it clear that programmes developed *with*, not *for* or *by* the people, stand the best chance of success. Good programmes result from joint efforts of the technically trained development workers and the progressive members of the villages. The key to successful programme development, therefore, lies in weaving the following information together into decisions about what should be done: facts about local conditions, targets set up at national,

state and regional levels, knowledge of Block and village staff and that of local and village leaders.

This is a vastly complex task and one of the most important jobs and greatest challenges to better programming and, in turn, to more effective Community Development. There are many reasons that make constant work at this task worthwhile. In the first place, "it is not what the programme does for people but what it does *to* them that counts." Secondly, the assumption is very unsound that either the village leaders alone, or officials at the Block, district or national level alone, have all the good ideas about what the programme should be. Good programmes should reflect the best knowledge and insights of *both* village leaders and professionally trained workers.

Furthermore, good planning procedures lead people to see beyond the present felt needs to the basic underlying problems. The ultimate performance must be by the people ; for it is what they do that is of transcendent importance. It is clear, therefore, that rural development programmes—if they are to have their roots in the social and economic life of villagers—must be planned in villages and Blocks around the needs and interests of the people. Programmes planned in this way become programmes of the people, with all the pride of authorship and satisfaction that comes from joint participation in both their planning and in execution.

All village people, of course, cannot be involved in this process. The problem of people's participation is handled by tuning in the masses through carefully selected village leaders. To attain worthwhile goals there usually must be some compromise between the ideal and the practical—between facts and value judgements. Is there any better way of assuring this than by involving village leaders with the Block staff in analysing situations and in making the decision on what should be done to improve conditions ?

8. *Programmes that are planned for longer periods of time than one or two years tend toward greater effectiveness.* Long-time programming, or identifying objectives that aim into the future, is more likely to be effective for a number of reasons. The important needs of people usually cannot be met in the short period of one or two years. Changing what people believe, what they do, and how they do it, is, at best, a slow process. Long and constant effort is usually needed to accomplish important community development objectives. To assure continued

work on the most fundamental needs in a village or Block requires provision in the programme for important elements to recur periodically. The formation of long-time objectives is a good technique for assuring continuation of work that focuses on major needs. This point of view suggests that care should be taken in the planning process to provide assurance that the short-term interests of people are also to their long-time advantage.

9. *Procedures in rural programming that assure fairly close integration of problems related to the farm, the home and the community appear to contribute to their soundness and effectiveness.* The word integration implies a smooth and efficient operation of a combination of activities or services in the solution of problems.. In view of the wide scope of content in a community development programme and the common objectives of its phases, various aspects of the programme should be blended into one effective force aimed at building better rural communities. The primary way to achieve coordination and integration in programmes is through common understanding among officials as well as between them and non-officials. This can be attained most effectively through joint participation in appropriate phases of the planning process.

10. *Programme planning must take into account cultural values and the social system.* Rural development programmes cannot be most effective unless they are planned and carried out in harmony with the basic cultural values held by people and the social setting in which they live. Cultural values reflect what people generally think is important. The social system tends to maintain adherence to the scale of established values. In traditional cultures, the social system and prevailing cultural values tend to serve as forces working against social and economic reform. Even in so-called advanced societies these influences are formidable. Programmes, therefore, cannot be most successful when they are too much at odds with innovations the value system will sanction. People's values and their social system must be understood and taken into account by planners of rural development programmes.

11. *Programme content must be determined with care and preciseness.* Predictions with a high degree of accuracy can be made about the probable outcome of programmes to promote change by examining their content. Content specifies the subject areas in which change is expected to be made. Consequently, the content of programmes is the most important index to new

ways in which people may be influenced to behave. Programme content represents what actually will be attempted in changing people and the situation in which they live. Methods used for executing programmes are merely means to ends, not the ends themselves. The selection of the content of programmes of change tends, therefore, to be a central or basic concern in rural programme planning.

12. *The interpretation of the programme to officials and non-officials and to the general public is an essential step in successful programming.* It is important that the aims and objectives of programmes become common knowledge among villagers. Interpretation means translating into familiar language or into terms that are readily understood as well as explanation of the meaning of facts as they apply to local conditions. Interpretation is important, for, unless people know what is available to them they cannot know what kind of help to request for.

Professional Abilities Needed By Planners

Planning effective programmes for Community Development requires a number of high level professional skills. Needed abilities include understanding and skill in at least the following broad areas of competency:

(1) Understanding of the nature and role of the National Extension Service organisation.
(2) Knowledge and understanding of technology related to subjects with which the programme is to deal.
(3) Ability to clarify the objectives of a programme and to state them so that they are useful in guiding its execution.
(4) Ability to organise people and things.
(5) Skill at seeing the relationship between principles and practice.
(6) Skill at inquiry.
(7) Skill in human relations.

In the following pages, a brief characterisation is made of each of these areas of competency. If the suggestions made here provide some insight and serve as useful guides to further study, they will serve their purpose.

1. *Understanding of the nature and role of the National Extension Service organisation.* Gaining an understanding of the nature of the National Extension Service organisation in India and its role as a national institution for promoting

rural development, requires a knowledge of the following:

(a) Development, present scope, philosophy and objectives of Community Development.

(b) Organisation and administration of the agency at the national, state, district, Block and village levels.

(c) The role of various categories of personnel at various levels in the hierarchy.

(d) Responsibility and opportunity of the agency in a developing country.

Adequate competency in these areas is fundamental to effectiveness and leadership on the part of officials and non-officials in the entire organisation. Each officer is a professional person. Knowing about one's professional affiliation is commonly viewed as a primary tool of the trade in any field of endeavour. Without this knowledge one cannot understand one's job, intelligently defend his profession, or suggest action to improve it. Likewise, he cannot effectively communicate opportunities to those who should participate. Effective professional leadership requires competency in this area on the part of all personnel engaged in the programme.

2. *Knowledge and understanding of technology related to subjects with which the programme is to deal.* Adequate knowledge and understanding of technology appropriate to one's professional job requires the following:

(a) Thoroughness of knowledge.

(b) Acquaintance with current technology.

(c) Knowledge of reliable sources of technology.

(d) Understanding of how technology relates to specific problems.

(e) Continuous study.

Technology related to the various special fields with which Community Development is concerned constitutes the chief commodity the programme has to offer to people. Whether the subject is agricultural production, social education, cooperatives, home science, youth work or any other, a body of useful technology is assumed to be available. Every successful educational effort requires significant technology appropriate to the problems dealt with. Subject-matter or technology is to workers in rural development what food is to human beings; it is life's sustenance. To attempt to teach others something one does not know oneself is to invite failure from the start. Every official in the community development organisation, therefore, should have not

only adequate knowledge of appropriate technology in his particular field of operation, but also an understanding of it and its relationship to the problems of villagers.

3. *Ability to clarify objectives of a programme and state them so that they are useful in guiding its execution.* The importance and role of programme objectives were mentioned previously. The ability to clarify and state objectives for one's work is also important. This task includes:

(a) An understanding of the nature of purpose and the role of objectives in educational work.
(b) Knowledge of the sources of objectives.
(c) Knowledge of levels and interrelation of objectives.
(d) Skill in stating and using objectives to guide educational activity.

It has been said said that "to him who knows not the port to which he is bound, no wind can be favourable." A frequent criticism of workers in Community Development is related to the fuzziness with which objectives are conceived and stated. Too often statements of objectives at all levels can be characterised as glittering generalities. In this form they are not very helpful in guiding the programme. The importance of clarifying objectives and goals is found in two major truths:

(a) Subject-matter and methods necessary to attain educational goals can be wisely selected only when the objectives are specific and clearly stated.
(b) Evidence of the effectiveness of community development work can be collected only in the light of specific and clearly defined objectives.

Clear objectives, therefore, improve the preciseness with which educational activity is carried on. One important characteristic of the twentieth century is its requirement of decisiveness in action. Clear objectives give direction to action.

4. *Ability to organise people and things.* This requires an understanding of:

(a) The nature and function of organisation.
(b) Principles of organisation.
(c) Techniques of organisation.
(d) The nature and role of coordination and integration in programmes.

The need for organisation increases in direct ratio to the growth in the size and complexity of tasks to be performed by an

individual or an agency in attaining its purposes. Organisation is properly viewed as an arrangement of relationships of persons, materials, or ideas necessary for the performance of functions. It should be looked upon as a means, not as an end. The principle of organisation is not limited in its application to people alone, but has a much broader application. People are organised for joint activity. Materials, ideas and facts are organised for common use or for use by one person. Thinking is essentially a process of organising facts and ideas with a view to taking action. In all cases, the need for organisation has its origin in the work to be done. The term organisation is properly used when it refers to any collection of persons, materials, procedures, ideas, facts and the like, so arranged and ordered that in each case the parts make a meaningful whole. Good organisation then is that which groups activities, ideas, facts, materials or persons so as to get the best performance with the least effort. Good organisational ability is shown by definite regularity, predictability and dependability in the everyday performance of persons or groups doing the job expected of them.

The act of organising requires attention to at least the two following definite and well established processes :

(a) *Coordination*. Coordination means making harmonious adjustment—to give things and actions their proper perspective—to unify designated effort into an integrated whole. Coordination is necessary in carrying out practically any job or assignment. It, therefore, becomes the essence of any effective organisation of efforts. There must be coordination in all major community development functions, including administration, supervision, programming, programme execution and appraisal of accomplishments.

(b) *Procedure analysis*. Procedure is a way of arranging sequences of operations necessary for effective action. Certain definite elements must always be considered and employed in both the preparation and evaluation of procedures. Important facts upon which the success of procedures rests must be discovered, selected and clarified. These are the facts which are of such outstanding importance that they must be given consideration in the design of procedures.

Organisational ability is a high level skill and is essential to the effectiveness of extension workers.

5. *Skill in seeing the relationship between principle and practice.* The ability to relate principle and practice involves knowledge and understanding of :

(a) The nature and role of principles related to Community Development.

(b) The nature and role of techniques and procedures for carrying out programmes.

(c) The inseparable interdependence of principle and practice in the extension educational process.

Theory and practice always have a relationship. Principles relate to why, techniques to how. One may understand the structure of theory and be unable to apply it in practice. On the other hand, one may be able to use technique skilfully, but be superficial in one's efforts because one does not understand how the technique relates to the whole process of Community Development, or to the specific aspect of the activity one is performing.

The effective extension worker is neither only an abstract thinker nor only an accomplished user of tricks. He is both. He must understand the principle lying behind his technique in order to make the technique most effective. The importance of principles stems from the fact that they are general rules—well established truths—that usually have wide application. They serve as useful guides in a wide range of situations. Extension workers equipped with an understanding of principles applicable to their work are more likely to be creative than those who pride themselves on just being practical.

Rural development workers sometimes appear to misinterpret the term 'practical.' They infer that to be practical, things must be simple, easy to do, primer-like, not complicated. The basic meaning of the term practical really suggests that whatever technique works well in a situation, regardless of its complexity, is practical. Principles give meaning to technique. Techniques give application to principles. One who glorifies techniques without trying to understand the principles related to them is really a captive of technique. One who paramounts principles without an understanding of the technique necessary to apply them is a captive of theory. An understanding of principles related to techniques and skill with techniques is the height of professional competency. The person who only knows how, and the person who only knows why are always likely to

have a job, but the person who knows both how and why will eventually supervise both of them.

6. *Skill at inquiry.* Ability at inquiry requires the following skills necessary to help individuals :

(a) identify their problems,
(b) discover focal points of concern,
(c) determine alternative solutions, and
(d) evaluate possible solutions and make decisions about them.

Without this competency, extension workers cannot be effective in helping people analyse their problems. Skill at inquiry is not only basic to planning, but also to guidance. Unless rural development workers are skilful at inquiry they cannot help people discover problems and work out useful solutions to them. It is a relatively easy task to supply answers based on opinion, but a vastly more difficult one to supply leadership that truly helps others analyse their problems and arrive at sound decisions about them. The process of inquiry consists of these four primary steps :

(a) *Identifying the difficulty or problem or need.* Inquiry usually begins with a specific problem that causes people to feel that something ought to be done. Whenever a situation causes people—officials or non-officials—to be disturbed, there is need for inquiry, community-wide, family-wide or confined to an individual. Those responsible for planning rural development programmes should be skilful in discovering these feelings of dissatisfaction in order to further analyse the special aspects of the situation in which lies the specific concern.

(b) *Discovering the focal point of trouble.* This step requires facts that will pin-point the true nature of a problem, its scope and its importance. It usually entails careful scrutiny of attitudes, beliefs, values, habits, prejudices and the like, in addition to the scrutiny of the body of information commonly called facts.

(c) *Determining possible ways to solve the problems.* In this step, ideas about plans of action must be developed that offer possible solutions to the difficulty. At this point, community development workers must provide leadership. Often it is easy to supply

solutions to problems, but difficult to reach a truly joint decision about how to solve them.

(d) *Evaluating alternative plans of actions.* This step requires the ability to project probable consequences of each suggested course of action if it were taken. It involves determining the probable value of each idea, and a decision about which kind of action is most likely to succeed.

Without skill at inquiring, a rural worker's relation with the people is one of the blind leading the blind, or, even the more disastrous one of the blind attempting to lead those with excellent sight.

7. *Skill in human relations.* Ability in human relations is necessary for successful work with people in general, and especially with local leaders, co-workers and those in the administrative organisation.

Human relations concern how people get along with one another. Since the job of extension workers is ultimately to bring about educational change in people, they have to discover how to get people act in the ways *they* want *them* to. If extension workers cannot do this, they must change *their* goals to those desired by the people. If rural development workers cannot bring what they want in line with what people want, they may as well give up trying to change people in that particular way. One may know the technical answer, but unless one also knows how to work with people one won't know how to get technical answers translated into better farm, home, and community practices.

Man not having been born a social being, these behaviours have to be learned. Fortunately, they can be developed. Human judgement is fallible and mistakes will always be made. But many errors in relations among people can be avoided if fundamentals of the subject are studied and understood.

A Concept of "Needs"

Efforts to promote change in conditions of free-choice participation are successful only to the extent they are focussed on the

important needs of people and are effective in helping people meet these needs. Under voluntary conditions of participation, people concern themselves with programmes of change only when they think that the programme is valuable to them in meeting personal, family, group or community needs which they themselves recognise. The element of needs, therefore, becomes a central concern in rural programming.

Since the people in Indian villages are free to participate in community development activity or not to participate, their participation in effect constitutes casting a vote. When they participate, they vote favourably. When they do not participate, they also vote, but unfavourably. They determine their vote on the basis of their estimate of the probable value to them of the things participation may give them. This judgement is made on the basis of satisfaction, or the lack of it—economic, social, aesthetic or moral—which a villager feels he may obtain from participation. In short, people concern themselves with programmes only on the basis of needs as they see them, not as the officials view them. The central problem, therefore, of successful programming is one of identifying accurately what people want, think they need, and actually do need, and then getting these items woven into a realistic well organised and concerted series of forceful activities. This may properly be called a programme. Effective programmes to promote change are developed through an approach to individuals and groups—by finding people's needs and arranging action that helps meet them. Hence, a clear understanding of the nature and role of people's needs in programmes of change is essential to the leaders of such programmes.

The term need is a simple four-letter word that appears rather innocent at a glance. But it is one of the most important words related to rural development programmes. This is so because the needs of people constitute the core around which successful programmes are built. Needs imply conditions including necessity, requirement, urgency, prerequisite, vacancy, scarcity, lack and indispensability. An understanding of the nature and role of people's needs can be developed by gaining a clear concept of the meaning and implications of a number of widely accepted propositions related to the term need. Some basic aspects of a concept of need are indicated as follows :

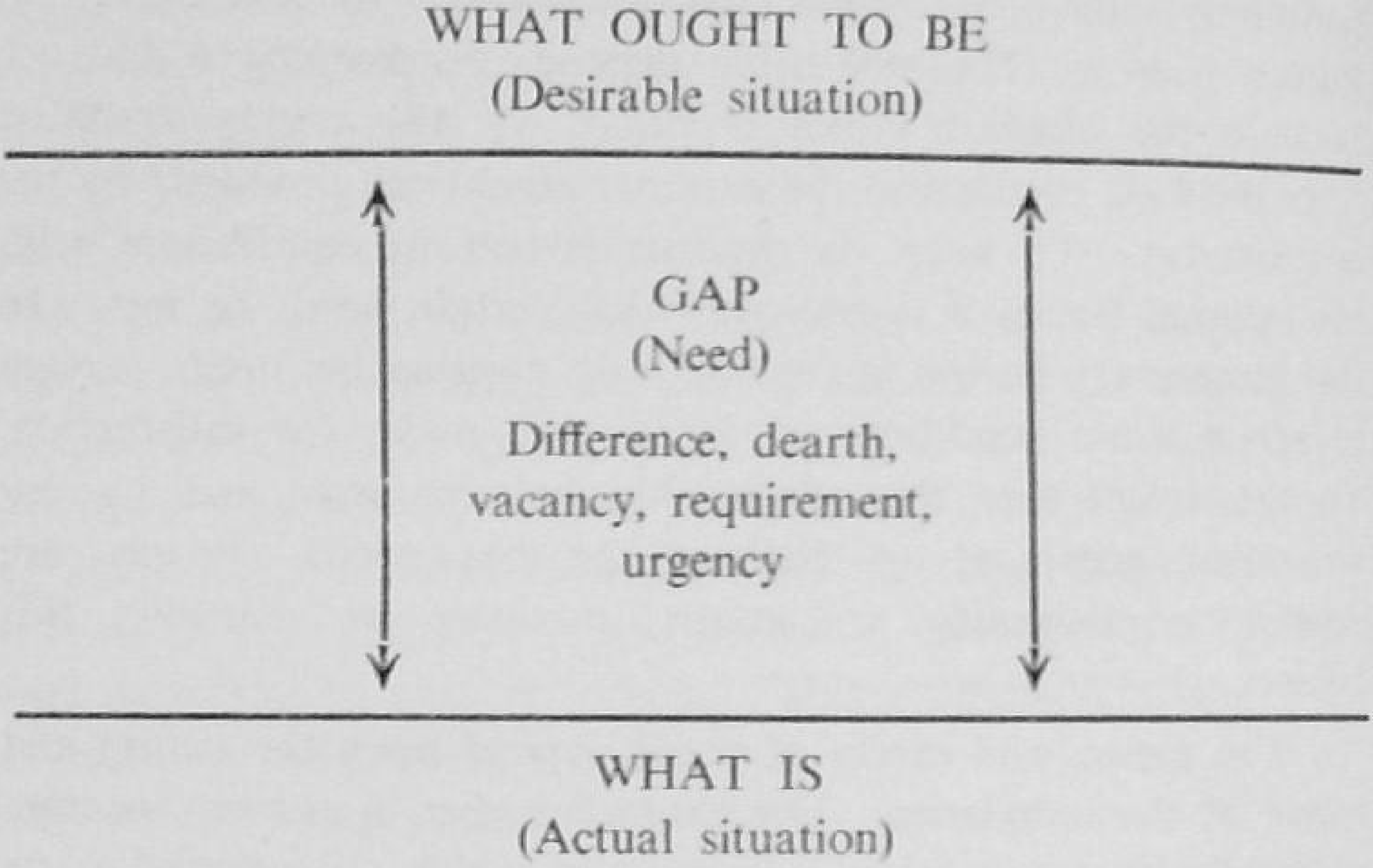
1. *Man is an independent living system surrounded by an environment with which he constantly interrelates.* Man is constantly influenced by his environment and in turn exerts influence over it. His well-being depends on keeping a balance between the internal forces produced by the energy resulting from the food intake and the external conditions produced by the environment. To keep the human system in equilibrium with the external forces, it is necessary that certain needs be met. In this sense every person is continuously meeting his needs—trying to attain those conditions of living that make for satisfaction. To the extent that the relationship between man and his environment goes out of balance, he has needs. People are constantly attempting to attain, maintain or improve this balance.

The nature and extent of needs depend upon the nature and extent of the imbalance. For example, when a person becomes physically ill, a condition is created in which the affected parts of the body become functionally out of balance with the other parts. Consequently, it is said that the person is sick. To get well, the imbalance must be removed. In a like manner the imbalance between man and his environment in all of its aspects is the source from which people's needs emerge. Man's attempt to attain, and maintain a satisfying equilibrium between internal and external forces represents in true form his real struggle for survival and economic, social, aesthetic or moral improvement.

2. *People's needs are identified by finding through the programme planning process, the actual, the possible and the valuable.* By the actual is meant *what is*; by the possible is meant *what could be* and by the valuable is meant *what ought to be*. In choosing the things on which to focus programmes, it is necessary to analyse these conditions and possibilities and choose from among them the *most valuable*. Then it should become the objective of programmes to change people and the present conditions in which they live to the most valuable and possible conditions. Making the analyses and decisions necessary in this context is the essence of programme planning to meet people's needs.

3. *People's needs may be defined as the differences between what is, what could be and what ought to be.* Needs always

imply a gap beteen the two conditions as shown in the following diagram :



What is can be determined by a study of the situation. Some of the major kinds of information this study should include are important facts about people, their attitudes, knowledge, and what they think their needs are. It should include facts about physical factors, soils, crops, livestock, home conditions, farm implements, production resources, community services. It should include facts about public problems, programmes, trends and outlook.

What ought to be can be determined on the basis of research findings and value judgements of the people and their official leaders. For example, the results of research may show that the use of recommended practices in rice production will result in a one-third larger yield per acre. The cultivator on the other hand, may not place great value on reaching this level of production, or he may place greater value on spending his available resources on some other goal like better education for his children than on producing extra rice.

It should be recognised that information about *what is* does not make a programme, it only shows the situation. From this point planners have to take another step. This step is that of deciding *what ought to be*—what the desirable situation is. Hence, deciding on *what ought to be* is the process of selecting programme targets, goals or objectives. In setting objectives,

care must be taken to assure that the level of *what ought to be* is within the physical, economic, social and mental possibilities of attainment by those who are expected to make the change. Finally, it should be recognised that the nature and extent of the need (the width of the gap) is an indication of the significance of the problem. The wider the gap, the greater the problem.

4. *People have to recognise the gap between the actual, the possible and the desirable, and place value on attaining the desirable condition before they will become motivated to change in desirable directions.* This point poses the crux of the problem in programmes of change. Village people being wedded to custom and tradition, often being illiterate and surrounded by many outmoded cultural norms, are slow to make innovations in what they do and how they do it. When people have been schooled by centuries of experience to satisfy their wants by not having wants, it is difficult to conceive them that they should, for example, adopt new practices to increase crop yields or go through the uncertainties of consolidating several tracts of land into one piece.

Reluctance by villagers to change is not due altogether to a natural resistance to change, but to an apparent lack of interest in change. They seem to feel satisfied with their old ways even when new ones are demonstrated side by side with the old. When the actual or *status quo* is seen as the ideal, desirable or satisfactory status of things, no need is recognised on the part of people. Consequently, there is in their minds no need for a programme to promote change because there is no need for change in the first place, as they view the situation. To be successful, therefore, a programme must cause people to recognise the gap between the actual, the desirable and the possible, and place a value on attaining the desirable.

5. *Human behaviour and the status of things can only be judged by some standard and that standard can only be derived from a concept of what is valuable and desirable to attain.* Human behaviour and the status of things usually can be placed on a scale of human values between opposites. The following are some often used opposites :

Positive	*Negative*
Good	Bad
Efficient	Inefficient
Effective	Ineffective
Economical	Uneconomical
Desirable	Undesirable
Beautiful	Ugly
Honest	Dishonest
Educational	Uneducational
Objective	Subjective
Love	Hate
High	Low
Healthy	Unhealthy

+ 0 −

People tend to desire to achieve the first and avoid the second condition indicated by the terms in the diagram. This is so because conditions indicated by the terms on the positive side of the scale represent things or conditions most people value and think are desirable. Although the terms at each side of the scale appear to indicate opposites and also absolutes, it should be kept in mind that human behaviour and the status of things tend to be relative to established norms or standards and, therefore, are not absolute. If prevailing human behaviour were absolute in relation to norms established by society it may be assumed that Utopia would exist.

In this situation, a society could dispense with the institutions of law and order, education, rural development and others designed to change people's behaviour according to some preconceived pattern. This would be so because there would be no need for change. Human behaviour and the status of things can, therefore, usually be placed on a specific point between opposites. For example, the production of milk per cow can be placed at a certain point between good and bad, high and low, efficient and inefficient, economical and uneconomical. The attitude of a villager toward a Village Level Worker can be placed on the scale at some point between love and hate. The average yield of grain per acre a villager produces may be found at some point between opposites like high and low, economical and uneconomical, and furthermore, the home conditions of a village family will always be of a specific quality which can be placed on a scale somewhere between good and bad, healthy and unhealthy, beautiful and ugly. This concept is important as a part of

one's understanding of the nature and role of people's needs because the difference on a scale of opposites between the actual and the desirable status of things represents the need. Human behaviour that can be placed at a point near the positive side of the scale, assuming equal importance of the item, does not present a need for change equal to behaviour that has to be placed near the negative side of the scale.

A gap of some magnitude, therefore, nearly always exists between the actual and the desirable condition. Recognition of this fact gives rise to programmes for promoting change. After such programmes have been carried out, gaps usually will still be present between the anticipated and the attained. Specific changes in human behaviour related to goals to be achieved tend, therefore, to be only partial, not complete. They tend to progress only in a given direction, not to arrive suddenly. They tend to be preliminary, not final. They tend to be means to ends, not the ends themselves.

Hence, each change in the behaviour of people in a desirable direction constitutes progress towards a goal which in turn brings other goals into focus that lie further toward the ultimate condition desired for people. The essence of progress is found in this process. Thus, the central task facing the leaders of rural development programmes is one of helping people recognise what their behaviour is like, what their farm and home practices and conditions are like, what their communities are like, each in relation to what they could and ought to be, and then view all these in relation to the knowledge, skill and effort necessary to help people make the changes in their behaviour and the status of things, that are possible and desirable.

6. *The needs of people may be classified according to different forms and categories.* One may use such terms as biological needs, educational needs, human needs, derived needs, particular needs, social needs, individual needs and so on. For simplicity and practical purposes, however, the needs of people may usefully be classified into three categories :

(a) *Physical needs :* Food, clothing, housing, activity and the like.
(b) *Social needs :* Group status, affection, belonging, etc.
(c) *Integrative needs :* The need to relate oneself to something larger and beyond oneself, a philosophy of life, etc.

Positive		*Negative*
Good		Bad
Efficient		Inefficient
Effective		Ineffective
Economical		Uneconomical
Desirable		Undesirable
Beautiful	+ 0 −	Ugly
Honest		Dishonest
Educational		Uneducational
Objective		Subjective
Love		Hate
High		Low
Healthy		Unhealthy

People tend to desire to achieve the first and avoid the second condition indicated by the terms in the diagram. This is so because conditions indicated by the terms on the positive side of the scale represent things or conditions most people value and think are desirable. Although the terms at each side of the scale appear to indicate opposites and also absolutes, it should be kept in mind that human behaviour and the status of things tend to be relative to established norms or standards and, therefore, are not absolute. If prevailing human behaviour were absolute in relation to norms established by society it may be assumed that Utopia would exist.

In this situation, a society could dispense with the institutions of law and order, education, rural development and others designed to change people's behaviour according to some preconceived pattern. This would be so because there would be no need for change. Human behaviour and the status of things can, therefore, usually be placed on a specific point between opposites. For example, the production of milk per cow can be placed at a certain point between good and bad, high and low, efficient and inefficient, economical and uneconomical. The attitude of a villager toward a Village Level Worker can be placed on the scale at some point between love and hate. The average yield of grain per acre a villager produces may be found at some point between opposites like high and low, economical and uneconomical, and furthermore, the home conditions of a village family will always be of a specific quality which can be placed on a scale somewhere between good and bad, healthy and unhealthy, beautiful and ugly. This concept is important as a part of

one's understanding of the nature and role of people's needs because the difference on a scale of opposites between the actual and the desirable status of things represents the need. Human behaviour that can be placed at a point near the positive side of the scale, assuming equal importance of the item, does not present a need for change equal to behaviour that has to be placed near the negative side of the scale.

A gap of some magnitude, therefore, nearly always exists between the actual and the desirable condition. Recognition of this fact gives rise to programmes for promoting change. After such programmes have been carried out, gaps usually will still be present between the anticipated and the attained. Specific changes in human behaviour related to goals to be achieved tend, therefore, to be only partial, not complete. They tend to progress only in a given direction, not to arrive suddenly. They tend to be preliminary, not final. They tend to be means to ends, not the ends themselves.

Hence, each change in the behaviour of people in a desirable direction constitutes progress towards a goal which in turn brings other goals into focus that lie further toward the ultimate condition desired for people. The essence of progress is found in this process. Thus, the central task facing the leaders of rural development programmes is one of helping people recognise what their behaviour is like, what their farm and home practices and conditions are like, what their communities are like, each in relation to what they could and ought to be, and then view all these in relation to the knowledge, skill and effort necessary to help people make the changes in their behaviour and the status of things, that are possible and desirable.

6. *The needs of people may be classified according to different forms and categories.* One may use such terms as biological needs, educational needs, human needs, derived needs, particular needs, social needs, individual needs and so on. For simplicity and practical purposes, however, the needs of people may usefully be classified into three categories :

(a) *Physical needs :* Food, clothing, housing, activity and the like.

(b) *Social needs :* Group status, affection, belonging, etc.

(c) *Integrative needs :* The need to relate oneself to something larger and beyond oneself, a philosophy of life, etc.

From a psychological standpoint, needs may be classified into two groups, viz., felt or consciously recognised needs and *unfelt* or unrecognised needs. Regardless of the classifications used for studying needs, it should be recognised that in a free society all needs must become felt before they serve as motivating forces. Research in adult education indicates that adults often are not aware of many of their most important needs. To the extent that this is true, adults have needs which are unfelt. Significant needs of which people are not conscious must be ferreted out and met in order to help them advance toward more desirable economic and social conditions.

One of the problems in rural programming, therefore, is to help people identify important needs they do not recognise. Thus it is not enough to base programmes entirely on what people feel their needs are, because these often may not represent some of their most important needs. Leaders of programmes must dig deep and identify needs people have which they do not recognise, then plan educational effort to convert these into felt needs. Without this, rural development programmes will be less significant and may tend to focus on the everyday short-term interests of people rather than on their more basic long-time needs.

7. *Final decision about the selection, or rejection, of needs to be included in a programme should be made with great care.* In the process of programme planning to meet people's needs, many decisions have to be made. These decisions have to be related to the actual, the valuable and the possible. Ultimately they must become decisions about acceptance or rejection of items to be included in the programme. These are crucial decisions and are highly significant, not only because the future of the people and their conditions will be influenced, but because extensive physical and human resources will be committed to helping people meet the needs accepted by planners and made a part of the programme. Indeed, these needs become the subject-matter or content of a programme. In turn, they are translated into the objectives or targets which the programme will seek to attain in course of time.

In the process of making final decisions about the needs to be included in a programme, some further points should be kept in mind. All people have needs. Needs vary in nature, scope and significance. Needs are often individual in attachment but they also tend to be common among members of groups. Needs

change with time and progress. This tends to be true whether concerted effort is made to meet them or whether nothing is done to meet them. The needs of people change with age, growth and with social, economic and family status situations. People's needs arise from lack of harmony between themselves and their environment. The relative importance of needs is influenced by the physical environment, what is possible in it, and by the cultural factors which form a system of values that people hold to be important.

Criteria for Practice and Procedure in Programming

The process of programme planning to meet people's needs includes four major elements or key steps that are generally viewed as of primary importance. It appears that the development staff should give proper attention to these elements in planning programmes that are significant and workable. The elements are :

(a) A plan for involving local people in the planning process.

(b) Procedure in programme planning.

(c) The programme—the product of planning.

(d) The annual plan of work.

These elements are described briefly in the following pages and a set of criteria for dealing with each of them is suggested. The criteria are attempts to describe the major steps, procedures or conditions that evidence shows to be good practice, involved in dealing with each element. The criteria are selected and designed to specify conditions, procedures, or practices that are conducive to developing the most effective rural programmes.

ELEMENT A

A plan for involving people in programme planning

Rural programme planning, in essence, is a process of making decisions about important objectives to be attained in an area. One of the most significant problems confronting rural development workers is that of deciding on programme objectives which reflect the primary needs and interests of people. How to do this skilfully is a question of major concern to every professional worker. Decisions about programme objectives are usually best when made neither by the officials alone, nor by the people alone, but when made jointly by the officials and the people.

The contributions of the local people to rural programming are obtained most effectively through some form of organised approach. Research indicates that no one type of organisation is best for programming in all situations. There are certain criteria, however, which are usually met when the local people contribute to programme development most effectively. These are indicated below.

1. Representative committees of non-officials are organised by the development staff. These function systematically on a continuing basis in developing and maintaining a current programme for development.
2. The people who function as members of the planning committees at the local level represent major interest groups, various economic and social levels of people, major vocations of the locality and other important elements in the area.
3. Each member of the planning groups clearly understands (a) the purpose of the group, (b) how the group can function in attaining its purpose, and (c) his individual role as a member of the group.
4. Members of the planning groups functioning at the local level are selected by appropriate democratic procedures.
5. Policies or rules formed for maintaining continuity of the planning groups include an appropriate plan for terminating the services of the temporary groups, and membership in the permanent groups, and for selecting new members of the permanent groups and new temporary groups.

ELEMENT B

Procedure in programme planning

Procedure in programme planning means the process, course of action, methods, or major steps taken in an area to develop a suitable programme. A summary of experience of extension workers and conclusions from research pertaining to procedures used in rural programme development supports the following conclusions :

(a) There are a number of essential steps in programme development that must be taken to develop a programme of the highest quality.

(b) The basic steps are generally applicable with adjustments to meet particular circumstances in local situations.

(c) After the steps are properly executed the basic principles of programme development should be applied.

(d) The detailed procedures employed for executing each of the basic steps may vary considerably in accomplishing the purpose of each step.

The following is a list of criteria pertaining to the various steps assumed to be essential in procedures for local programme development.

1. The entire development staff has considered and reached agreement on :
   (a) the importance to be attached to programming,
   (b) the amount of time to be devoted to programming,
   (c) the time when programming is to be done,
   (d) the phases of the programme to be developed, and
   (e) the general approach to be followed in the area.
2. The development staff, with the help of technical specialists and planning groups, has assembled basic facts about the situation for use in developing a programme including such information as the following :
   (a) sources and levels of family income,
   (b) health and educational levels of the people,
   (c) needs and interests of the people,
   (d) marketing facilities and practices,
   (e) farming and home-making practices, and
   (f) community problems and needs.
3. Basic facts about the local situation have been analysed jointly by the official staff and the planning groups and decisions made on this basis about major needs and interests of people.
4. A long-term programme has been developed and is used as a guide to all major activity in the area.
5. The technical specialists have assisted in developing the long-term programme by supplying specific basic information and recommendations pertaining to their special field that has been considered by the staff and the planning groups.
6. The development staff, jointly with the planning groups, has defined the problem and taken decisions about the long-term and the short-term objectives of the programme in line with major needs and interests of the people.

7. The development staff, jointly with the planning groups, has arranged a system of priority for work on problems included in the long-term programme.
8. The planning groups along with the official staff, has actively promoted coordination of the long-term programme.

ELEMENT C
The programme

A rural development programme is a carefully prepared statement written in a form that clearly sets forth the significant changes that are needed in the behaviour of the people and in the conditions in which they live, to be attained over a period of time. Specifically, it is a statement that includes:

(a) Primary facts that reveal the situation for each major subject or problem in the area that is to be dealt within the programme.
(b) Significant problems or needs.
(c) Major means for meeting the problems or needs.
(d) Statement of long-term objectives to be attained.

It is of utmost importance that the staff and the people in each area not only develop a basic long-term programme, but also prepare the programme in a written form that is readily understood and is suitable for use as a guide for officials and non-officials. Experience shows that this practice is a valuable guide to the staff and advisory committees and also a very effective means of improving public relations. The criteria listed below represent standards that should be achieved in written statements of a basic long-term programme.

1. The written programme should be suitable for use by the staff, planning groups, and other individuals or groups concerned with the programme.
2. It should state the primary facts that clearly reveal the situation for major subject or problem areas.
3. It should clearly state the important problems or needs identified by the staff and the people in the programming process.
4. It should state both the long-term and short-term objectives for each major subject or problem area that is to be focussed on in programme execution over a period of time.

5. It should state the objectives of the programme in a form that:
   (a) clearly reveals the kind of new condition or situation desired,
   (b) is meaningful to the staff and the people, and
   (c) will serve as a useful guide to programme execution.
6. It should specify the subject-matter related to each objective that is highly significant to the people, socially or economically, or both.
7. It should include the summary of the long-term programme prepared in a form suitable for public distribution, containing the following items:
   (a) major facts about the over-all area situation,
   (b) brief statement of the organisation and purpose of Community Development,
   (c) brief descriptions of the situation, statements of major problems, long-term objectives, and major means of achieving them for each of the major subject or problem areas,
   (d) the names of members of the planning groups and the official staff, and
   (e) other appropriate information.
8. It should be made available in a summary form to all the members of the planning groups, and the professional staff.
9. It should be circulated by appropriate means so that the general public can understand its nature and objectives.
10. It should be used as the basis for developing annual plans of work.

ELEMENT D

The annual plan of work

The annual plan of work commonly consists of a definite outline of procedure for carrying out work related to the different phases of the long-term programme. It should indicate specifically the means to be used and the methods of using them. Its basic function is to provide a guide for use in carrying on development work planned for the year in a systematic manner. The annual plan of work should effectively serve the following functions:

(a) A specific guide for carrying out systematically all the major aspects of work planned for the year.

(b) A guide to the development of plans and procedures for evaluating accomplishments.

(c) A guide to the scheduling of activity related to various aspects of the programme.

The following criteria related to annual plans of work are assumed to be important in their development and use.

1. Annual plans of work should be developed and used as a guide to all major activity during the year.
2. They should be developed from the long-term programme in a way that the content and goals are directly in line with the objectives of the different phases of the long-term programme.
3. They should include facts about the current situation pertaining to major subject or problem areas assembled by the development staff, technical specialists, and planning groups. They should also include facts about accomplishments during the past year for consideration in developing the annual plan of work.
4. They should include decisions jointly taken by the staff and the planning group on the major problems to be worked on during the year after a careful analysis of the current facts.
5. An annual plan of work in a written form, prepared by the staff, includes the following kinds of information for each project, subject or problem area :
   (a) Major subjects or problems to be worked on during the year.
   (b) Goals to be attained during the year.
   (c) Brief description of work to be done—methods, materials, etc.
   (d) Who is to participate in carrying out the plan ?
   (e) A calendar of work which shows the approximate amount of time to be devoted to each major activity, and seasonal distribution of major activities.
   (f) Who is to be reached with the programme.
6. The annual plan of work is used during the year as a basis for :
   (a) Coordinating activities of the different aspects of the area programme.
   (b) Developing and coordinating teaching plans for different specific activities.

SUGGESTED GUIDE FOR DEVELOPING AND STATING A VILLAGE OR BLOCK PROGRAMME

(Useful for specialised segments or for more comprehensive programmes)

1. *Description of the situation:* Include only significant facts necessary to clarify conditions for *each subject area.* Include facts about (1) the people, (2) physical conditions, (3) farm and home practices followed, (4) trends and outlook.	2. *Significant needs:* Using facts about the situation, list conditions in each subject area that show important gaps between what is and what should be. These gaps represent the needs.	3. *Objectives to be achieved:* Select from column 2 those needs that are agreed upon by the planning group and state them here in the form of objectives.	4. *Means for achieving the objectives:* Select and list here the primary means of attaining each objective stated in column 3.	5. *Calendar of work:* Decide and enter in this column the amount of time to be devoted to each major activity listed in column 4, and the dates on which the activity will be performed.

7. The annual plan of work is reproduced in an appropriate form for distribution and copies placed in the hands of (a) local leaders, (b) planning groups, and (c) other groups and individuals whose support is important for advancing the programme.
8. Means are used to acquaint the general public with the major activities to be undertaken during the year that are specified in the annual plan of work.

Organisation of Programmes

Important changes in human behaviour generally are not produced quickly. Usually, no single learning experience has a very profound influence on people who participate in programmes. Changes in the ways of thinking, in fundamental habits, in attitudes, in interests, develop slowly. In free-choice societies, it is only after months and years that workers in rural development are usually able to see major changes resulting from their educational efforts. In some respects, the effect of programmes involving education is cumulative like that of water constantly dripping on a stone and wearing it away. In a day, or a week or a month, there is no appreciable change in the stone, but over a period of years definite erosion is noted.

Correspondingly, by the accumulation of impressions resulting from exposure to recommendations made by rural development workers, profound changes are brought about in the action of rural people. In order that educational effort produces accumulative effect, it must be so organised as to expose village men and women to recommendations periodically over time and in such ways that the programme elements reinforce each other. Programme organisation is thus seen as a very important consideration in the process of rural development.

There are two major criteria for effective organisation of rural development programmes. The first of these is continuity. Continuity refers to the provision in a programme for important recommendations to recur frequently, thus giving people an opportunity to come into contact with important ideas again and again over a time, and, if possible, at advanced levels. Continuity in programmes is basic to the achievement of cumulative effects. It is often referred to as follow-up.

For example, meetings of village people are often held with a little or no particular follow-up on important ideas or recommendations presented Under these conditions little actual

change in people's behaviour has to be expected. Research related to the adaption rate of new practices by rural people shows quite clearly that as the number of exposures to any idea is increased up to five or six, the number of people making changes increases. Provision for the continuity or recurrence of ideas and recommendations several times and over a period of time is, therefore, a highly important criterion that should guide the organisation of programmes.

A second important criterion useful in guiding the organisation of rural development programmes is integration. Integration relates to the horizontal relationship of various elements in a programme. It has to do with the relationship of one item with another. Programme organisation should be such that it helps rural people increasingly to gain a unified view of major programme elements. To be successful, participants in programmes of rural development must eventually recognise all the elements as a whole, and how each one relates to others and to their problems.

For example, the objective of developing an understanding of the value and need for village latrines should also convey the idea of cleanliness and order throughout the village. The idea of integration implies the concept of transfer of learning. It recognises that people should eventually see ideas, needs and action in relation to the total task of Community Development. Integration implies the opposite of developing ideas singly as isolated behaviours or activities to be applied only at a single place, in a given time, in certain forms. The total capacity of people for Community Development must eventually be developed. For this an unity in their understanding and action is necessary. Integration helps the officials and the people to see how one item is related to another and how each one is affected by others. Thus, increased breadth and depth of people's educational development and increased unity in their action in relation to important elements in the programme are made possible.

After considering the two major criteria for organising programmes, questions arise about an organising structure. Many structures may be used for organising programmes. These include specific subjects or projects like animal husbandry, co-operatives, small industry, home science and social education. A second common way of organising programmes is according to problem areas like health, income, agricultural production, housing, home conveniences and farm equipment. A third widely

used structure for organising rural development programmes is on the basis of broad fields of content, usually designated as production and marketing, family living, youth development and community services.

A clearly developed structure of programme organisation helps to assure proper continuity and integration. It helps one to recognise the kind of activity that fits into a programme and that which seems relatively inappropriate. Those engaged in programme planning to meet people's needs, both officials and non-officials, must think and plan together. It is this kind of action that helps assure programmes that end in unity, rather than in a series of separate sets of knowledge, skills, and activity. It is only when each element in programmes reinforce others that they make maximum contribution to Community Development.

Some of the devices for assuring continuity and integration in programmes are carefully stated objectives that are well understood by everyone engaged in programme planning and execution, joint planning between officials and non-officials, especially at the local level, long-term planning, annual plans of work, preparation of programmes in written form, and wide distribution of the written programme among officials and the people who are to participate.

Conclusion

The development of programmes that harmonise the local needs as people see them and the national interests with which a country as a whole must be concerned, is a significant responsibility of local non-officials and officials at each level in the hierarchy of publicly sponsored programmes to promote rural development. Any procedure that takes into account the basic concept of needs and meets a set of criteria that will assure that the programme focuses on the significant needs of the people is a good procedure. The measure of success achieved in free-choice societies by public programmes to promote rural development is in direct ratio to the extent to which the programme is built around people's need and consequently, is an effective influence in helping meet their needs.

To accomplish these desirable ends effectively requires a carefully structured programme at the village and Block level that meets the following criteria :

1. It must focus on the felt needs and interests of the people.
2. It must be developed through joint participation of village leaders and Block staff, taking into account recommendations from the district, state and Central Government personnel.
3. It must be in line with local as well as state and national needs.
4. It must focus on problems that are most important since it cannot be all things to all people at the same time.
5. It must be flexible, but with a "backbone" that gives it stability and continuity.
6. It must provide for a system of priorities in line with local needs, interests and resources.
7. It must be balanced, that is, contain items of assistance for all major social, economic, age and sex status groups.
8. It must have objectives that are attainable within the economic, social and mental capacities of the people through education with a minimum of government aid.
9. It must be highly significant economically, socially, aesthetically or morally to a relatively large number of people in each village or Block.
10. It must be developed, understood, conducted and judged as an educational instrument for helping people learn how to help themselves.
11. It must provide satisfaction for the people who participate. The central objective of India's National Extension Service programme is to help each individual, each family and each village achieve the highest level of living that it is capable of economically, socially, and culturally by means of aided self-help through education. Those responsible for developing a programme to achieve this objective must ferret out and perpetuate only the useful from the past, exercise concern only for the promising in the present and focus skilfully all available resources on the significant elements in the bright future. This is the formula for achieving the new India.

Selected References

Approaches to Community Development. Editor Phillips Ruopp, W. Van Hoeve Ltd., The Hague, 1953.

Community Development in India. V. T. Krishnamachari, Publications Division, Government of India, New Delhi, 1958.

Cooperative Extension Work. L. D. Kelsey and C. C. Hearne, Comstock Publishing Associates, Ithaca, New York, 1949.

First Five Year Plan. Planning Commission, Government of India, New Delhi, 1951.

Guide to Community Development. Ministry of Community Development and Cooperation, Government of India, New Delhi, 1957.

Human Problems in Technological Change. Editor Edward H. Spicer, Russel Sage Foundation, New York, 1952.

India's Changing Villages. S. C. Dube, Routledge and Kegan Paul Ltd., London, 1958.

Methods and Programme Planning in Rural Extension. J. M. A. Penders, H. Veenman and Zenen, Wageningen, The Netherlands, 1956.

Pilot Project in India. Albert Mayer and associates, University of California Press, 1958.

Rural Social Systems. Loomis and Allen, Prentice Hall Inc., New York, 1950.

Second Five Year Plan. Planning Commission, Government of India, New Delhi, 1956.

Seminar Papers. Department of Economics, University of Madras, Madras 1956-57.

What Man May Be—The Human Side of Science. George Russell Harrison, William Morrow & Co., New York, 1956.

CHAPTER VIII

DEVELOPING FAMILY, VILLAGE AND BLOCK PROGRAMMES

G. S. Vidyarthi

THERE ARE OBVIOUS reasons why sound family, village and Block programmes should be developed as a planned approach to problems. Every organisation like the National Extension Service which is concerned with the general welfare of the rural people must have a clear statement of its purpose. With the economic, social and ethical foundations of the rural society undergoing profound changes, extension workers have the responsibility of helping shape things to come in rural India. They need to know where they are going and why. A sound programme is needed to guide the people and the extension workers in the right direction at all stages of development.

As the National Extension Service is becoming larger and more complex, there is a greater necessity for the extension programme to become more specific and integrated. This means that the Gram Sevaks and other extension workers at the Block level understand the relationship of the farm to the home, of the home to the farm and of both to the community. There must be an understanding of community, state, national and international influence on the farmers' life. The future of extension and the Community Development Programme is dependent on the ability of extension workers at the village and Block levels to develop with the people the right kind of village programme.

Importance of Programme Planning

Extension work is characteristically a cooperative venture. It is very essential in such a public movement that the statement of its purpose is clearly understood both by the extension workers

and the people. Ten reasons for a programme as defined by Kelsey and Hearne in their book *Cooperative Extension Work* are :

1. To ensure careful consideration of what is to be done, why and how.
2. To have available in written form a statement for general public use.
3. To furnish a guide or straight edge against which to judge all new proposals.
4. To establish objectives towards which progress can be measured and evaluated.
5. To have a means of choosing :
   (a) the important from the incidental problems ;
   (b) the permanent from the temporary changes.
6. To prevent mistaking the means for the end, and to develop both felt and unfelt needs.
7. To give continuity during changes of personnel.
8. To avoid waste of time and money and promote general efficiency.
9. To aid in the development of leadership.
10. To help justify appropriations by public bodies.

Criteria for Good Programme Planning

A good programme meets the needs and interests of the majority of the people and motivates them to make necessary changes. To be effective, every programme must start with the people and situations as they are, and then build towards the ultimate goal of better family living. The first step in the preparation of planning a programme is for the extension workers to become oriented to the job. The following are some criteria for good programme planning.

A. *Describe the particular situation, then base the programme on it.*
   1. Consult Block staff and district extension staff, consult available government reports.
   2. Study recommendations of research stations.
   3. Consult the people.
   4. Consult local institutions like the *panchayat*, cooperative and school and other organisations like the rural youth club, *mahila mandal*, farmers' forum and young farmers' association.

5. Keep in view the state and national situations affecting life.

B. *Select problems and fix priorities based on felt needs.*
1. All problems cannot be tackled at one time.
2. Problems should be related to the family, community and Block situation.
3. Problems should be arrived at democratically through participation of village people, the entire extension staff and others who can contribute to the programme.
4. Problems should be those most felt and of widest concern.

C. *Objectives and goals should offer satisfaction.*
1. They should be understood by the rural people for whom they are intended.
2. They should be attainable to the degree that satisfaction may result.
3. They should be stated in terms that can be understood and measured.
4. They should be agreed upon by the people who are to attain them.

D. *Good programmes have permanance with flexibility.*
1. They should meet short-term changes.
2. They should meet long-term changes.
3. They should meet special emergencies.

E. *Good programmes combine balance with emphasis.*
1. They cover the majority of important interests with timely problems chosen for emphasis to avoid scattered effort.
2. They should be comprehensive enough to embrace all age groups, creeds and races at all levels on all problems —family, village, Block, district.
3. They should show good distribution of time and effort throughout the year.

F. *Prepare a plan of work.*
The plan of work should include details about the following:
1. The people to be reached and the reasons.
2. The goals, dates and places.
3. Provisions for teaching methods and specific plans for reaching people.
4. Recognition, training and duties of local voluntary leaders.

5. What part is to be played by the extension personnel?
6. What part is to be played by other agencies?
7. What plans will there be for measuring results?
8. What will the calendar of work and events be?

G. *Programming is a continuous process.*
1. Problems and emphasis change, phases may get completed and new problems may arise.
2. Solutions change as improved practices and materials are found.
3. Objectives change as people see more clearly what they need and as their previous needs are met.

H. *Programming is an educational process.*
1. It teaches people to think, reason, question, make decisions and act through participation.
2. It is a time-consuming but good investment.

I. *Programming is a coordinating process.*
1. It creates interest and obtains cooperation of many people.
2. It coordinates efforts of leaders, groups and agencies and promotes the best use of all resources.

J. *Programme planning provides for evaluation of results.*

Steps in Planning Programmes

Extension programme planning involves an exchange of information and ideas through which problems of agriculture and rural living are more clearly defined. It involves decisions about common wants and needs, and agreement on individual and group action to achieve common goals.

The process of extension programme planning can be broken down into the following consecutive steps :

1. Collection, analysis and evaluation of all available and pertinent facts bearing on the welfare of the rural community.
2. Determination of objectives based on the needs of the community.
3. Definition of problems or obstacles faced in achieving the objectives or meeting the needs of the community.
4. Finding solutions to problems.
5. Selecting problems to be attacked with due consideration to priorities.

6. Preparing a plan of activities directed towards solution of selected problems and assigning group and individual responsibility for each activity in the plan.
7. Carrying out the plan step by step in a coordinated manner.
8. Continuous checking and evaluation of results.
9. Reviewing progress towards achievement of objectives and projecting of plans for an additional period.

1. *Collection, analysis and evaluation of data.* Good planning depends on the availability of adequate and reliable data and a scientific elaboration and interpretation of the same. Extension workers must have adequate knowledge of what farmers produce, how and under what conditions they produce it, and how the production can be stepped up to the maximum for the purpose of formulating plans at the village and Block level.

An intimate knowledge of the cropping patterns, procedures of farm management and the factors of production is essential for purposeful programme planning in agriculture in any area. Therefore, it is of great importance that all extension workers—the Gram Sevaks, Extension Specialists and Block Development Officers—possess the factual and basic farm and family information required for preparing a sound family, village and Block plan.

It is not possible to draw up a comprehensive list of items suitable for all parts of the country on which extension workers could collect information. But, in general, information on the following items should be collected.

A. *Basic information about the village*
   1. Population
   2. Total number of families
   3. Number of farm families
   4. Other main occupations of the villagers
   5. Facility of communication
   6. Facility of schooling
   7. Facility of medical aid
   8. Facility of drinking water, etc.
   9. Attitudes and beliefs of the rural population (social classes, formal and informal groups, local leaders, etc.)
   10. Nutrition situation (food habits, level of nutrition, etc.)

B. *Information about farm management and production programmes*

1. Total area under cultivation in the village
2. Size of an average agricultural holding
3. Types and quality of crops grown (including cropping programme, crop rotation), and types and quality of livestock
4. Soil types (suitability for different crops) and problems connected with soil fertility, soil erosion, drainage, soil improvement, etc.
5. Cattle feeds (feed rations and crops grown as cattle feeds, etc.)
6. Utilisation of grass land (arrangement for cattle grazing and grass land improvement)
7. Disease and pest control (important diseases and pests, and their control measures)
8. Agricultural machinery (types of traditional and improved agricultural implements used etc.)
9. Irrigation resources (types of irrigation sources and problems) and drainage
10. Financial position of the farmers (long and short-term debts, borrowed capital, etc.)
11. Credit facilities (sources and facilities of securing credits)
12. Position of labour (problems of farm labour, landless labour in the village)

The data can be collected by the Gram Sevak, Gram Sevika and other workers from the villagers themselves, from the local institutions and from the records of the revenue assistant. Reliance and adequacy of the data about factual situations are very important considerations in building sound programmes at the family, village and Block levels.

It is very important that persons engaged in developing the extension programme, like the Village Level Workers, Extension Officers and Block Development Officers strengthen the local institutions like the *panchayat*, the cooperative society, the school and the rural youth club by collecting the factual data through them and using them for building the programme at the family, village and Block levels. The workers should develop local leadership in such a way that the villagers and the local institutions are able to recognise and select problems for action on a priority basis. Thus, it is desirable that the essential factual data collected by the workers is passed on to the village *panchayat* or Block development committee for review and action

in deciding which problems of the village or Block should be tackled first.

2. *Determination of objectives.* It is essential in the programme planning process that before deciding on the projects to be undertaken the basic objectives of the programme are determined by the villagers in consultation with the extension staff. This means that the villagers must have a very clear understanding of the projects so that they are able to set up appropriate objectives for village programmes. Objectives of the programme can be decided upon by the head or active member of the participating family for family plans or by the village *panchayat* in the case of activities to be undertaken on a community or village basis. Service cooperatives operating in villages should also take upon themselves the responsibility for deciding the objectives of the programme which promotes welfare of rural children, youth and women. In arriving at the objectives for village programmes, the villagers and leaders of local institutions should take the advice of the extension workers. In many cases, the objectives of the programme may not be clear to the villagers. In such situations the extension staff may give a lead to the villagers in determining the specific objectives.

3. *Definition of problems.* In the process of programme planning at the family, village or Block level, it is desirable that village activities are properly classified. This will give an opportunity to the planners and the participants to assess their potentialities and capabilities for executing the programme. Generally, in villages, such problems can be classified into the following categories :

1. Problems which can be solved by the villagers with their own resources, like improving yields by adopting improved methods of agricultural production, improving the manurial potential by preparing compost manure, organising service cooperatives, rural youth clubs, *mahila mandals*, etc.
2. Problems that need community cooperation without involving much outside assistance, like the construction of a village approach road by voluntary effort, improving village drainage, deepening of tanks, afforestation of common land, etc.
3. Problems that require assistance from outside sources on account of high costs involved and the technical knowledge needed such as the construction of a school

building, purchase and use of plant protection equipment, supply of fertilisers, construction of metalled road, installation of pumping sets, construction of tube-wells, etc.

If the villagers and the village institutions are able to classify their problems under such broad heads, it will be easy to plan a clear-cut programme for each individual, family and the village. Under these conditions, the internal and external resources can be utilised economically and quicker results obtained. In the programme planning process, it is also desirable to break up the complex problems step by step into simple problems. For example, in the case of improving village sanitation, the first step can be to organise cleanliness drives periodically in the villages, then have a programme of soakage pits followed by a village drainage programme, etc.

4. *Finding solutions to problems.* The Gram Sevak working at the village level and the Extension Officer working as a specialist at the Block level are two very important functionaries who advise the village families and village institutions on their problems. It is of real importance that these functionaries have a clear understanding of the village problems and keep themselves equipped for offering solutions to the problems the villagers present to them. They must consult their superior specialists on problems they are not able to handle themselves. The best method of convincing the villagers is for the specialists to function in the programme as partners. Specialists at district and state levels who assist the Block level specialists must also be fully oriented and trained with an understanding of village problems and programmes.

5. *Selecting problems to be tackled.* As time changes, the economic and social levels of villagers also change. Therefore, it is necessary for the extension workers and the village institutions to select problems and concentrate their efforts on those projects in a phased way. This will result in appreciable achievements and convince the village people about the utility of the programme. Sporadic efforts sometimes do not end in lasting and convincing impressions on the minds of rural people. Care, therefore, must be exercised by programme committees set up at village and Block levels to review the situation periodically for determining how much progress has been made on projects under way, which projects are complete and which new projects may be initiated. This would provide opportunities for selecting

problems for programme planning in a more methodical and democratic manner.

6. *Annual plan of work.* Preparing a plan of activities directed towards solving selected problems is an important step. A plan of work is the listing of activities by which the objectives already decided upon are to be achieved. It includes the methods of executing the programme such as demonstrations, discussion meetings, family contacts by the extension workers, etc. It indicates the places, timings and persons responsible for carrying out the programme along with the methods of evaluating the progress.

Village *panchayats,* cooperatives, schools, rural youth clubs and individual families can prepare their own annual plans of work in a simple way. The extension agency may provide suitable proformas and guidance for preparing these. In the early stages, the initiative has to come from the extension agency itself in planning programmes because, in India, villagers and village institutions are not habituated to follow a systematic method of preparing annual plans of work.

Based on family and village annual plans, it is easy for the Block development committee to prepare an annual plan of work for the entire Block on a realistic basis representing the needs of the villagers.

An adequate training is required for the extension staff to acquire the necessary skill in developing programmes at family, village and Block levels in cooperation with people's committees like the Block Development Committee, the village *panchayat,* the cooperative society, etc., and the village families. The training of the members of village *panchayats,* service cooperative societies, rural youth clubs, and Block Development Committees will also form an essential element in the process of programme planning.

Each family can keep a simple register for maintaining the annual plan of work, while the *panchayats* and cooperatives at the village level can maintain the annual plan of work for village development activities. At the Block level, the Block Development Committee can maintain the annual plan of work for the Block.

7. *Carrying out the plan.* The success of a programme depends on the method by which it is carried out. For successful implementation of any programme it is desirable that advance planning be done. As the first step towards its implementation,

a calendar indicating the activities to be carried out during each month should be prepared. Proper arrangement for the supply of fertilisers, equipment, credit, audio-visual aids and literature should be made much in advance. A training programme for specialised projects should be organised much ahead. Efforts should be made to select the best type of local leaders who can shoulder the responsibility and multiply the efforts of the extension agency. All steps in carrying out a programme should be discussed with the villagers and their consent obtained at appropriate periods so that a partnership in the programme is built up and maintained. Steps for assistance and direction should be clearly stated so that there may be no confusion anywhere in launching the extension programmes.

The programme of individual families in a village will form, to a very great extent, the base for a village programme. In turn, the village programme should become an integral part of the Block programme. Immediate steps should be taken by the Village Level Worker and local institutions at the village level, the Extension specialist, the Block Development Officer and the Block Development Committee at the Block level to phase every activity in a proper perspective, and arrange all things in time.

If cooperation and coordination of the village institutions and the Block institutions are maintained with extension workers and the villagers in the process of programme planning, the programme so developed will be more realistic and easier to implement. For imparting a proper type of training to local leaders, farm leaders and members of *panchayats* and the Block development committee, seminars should be arranged at the village and Block levels.

8. *Continuous checking and evaluation of results.* An effective plan of work requires the keeping of adequate records of each activity as a base for future evaluation. Evaluation of the activities should be undertaken jointly by the extension staff, the village institutions and the Block Development Committee. Each future programme should be based on the evaluation results of the previous one. Successful evaluation gives a correct direction to a programme.

9. *Review of process and projection of plans.* Village institutions like the *panchayat*, the cooperative, the school and the Block Development Committee should periodically review the progress of plans in cooperation with the staff members of the Block. Programmes which have created an impact on the

people and are being accepted by them should be extended to the neighbouring areas where similar agro-climatic and socio-economic conditions occur. Research should be conducted on the programmes which are not being accepted by the people and the reason for their failure ascertained.

Programmes should never be considered as ends in themselves. They are merely tools for doing more effective work. A proper adjustment of time and energy spent in preparing a programme has always to be maintained with the actual implementation of the programme in the field.

Building an Agricultural Production Programme for a Family, Village and Block

In the preceding pages, an attempt has been made to set forth the principles and approaches to sound programme building. The questions may now be asked: How are these principles to be applied to an actual situation in the field? Can we submit our concepts of programme building to the rigid discipline of a real life situation? The manner in which the tools, described above, are used in the preparation of a workable plan of action, is illustrated in the following example of planning an agricultural production programme for village Sherpur.

The village Sherpur, in the Rampur Development Block, is situated on the Western Jamuna Canal. The population of the village is nearly 600, consisting of nearly 120 families. Out of the 120 families, 100 are agricultural and 20 non-agricultural families. Cultivators mostly have medium-sized holdings, the average size being 10 to 15 acres. Landless families earn their livelihood by working as labourers with the agricultural families. The principal crop of the village is paddy, its average yield being 15 to 20 maunds per acre. Cultivators use organic manures like compost and cowdung in the cultivation of paddy. They also use ammonium sulphate to fertilise the crop, but not superphosphate. The main source of irrigation is the canal, and the type of soil clay-loam. Sherpur is only two miles away from Rampur which is the principal marketing centre for paddy and other agricultural crops.

The cultivators want to:

(a) intensify their efforts to increase the yield of paddy as much as they can.

(b) take up improved agricultural practices to build up the level of soil fertility.

(c) increase the availability of organic manures by utilising local resources, and

(d) improve the drainage system of their village which affects large areas under cultivation due to water-logging and seeping of water from the canal.

Defining the problems

1. The villagers are capable of building up the resources of organic manures by utilising every bit of the refuse and other composting materials, but they want to know the proper technique of compost-making.

2. They are capable of digging a drainage channel to improve the drainage system in their village provided the canal authorities allow them to pass the drainage channel below the secondary canal which is running on one side of the village. An aqueduct has to be constructed for the secondary canal to pass over the drainage channel.

3. The villagers are willing to step up the production of paddy and other *kharif* crops, but they do not have pesticides and improved agricultural implements which can be used economically. They do not know the use of superphosphate. They have recently started a cooperative society in the village, but they do not have the facility of adequate credit and also have not yet received any agricultural implements or insecticides or superphosphate from it.

Finding solutions to problems

The solution to these problems is that all such steps be taken which might step up their agricultural production to the maximum by utilising the internal and external available resources. The extension agency and the villagers, after discussing the above objectives, may reach the conclusion that the following solutions are appropriate to fulfil the objectives.

1. Adoption of the Japanese method of paddy cultivation.
2. Line-sowing of other crops.
3. Top-dressing, weeding and interculture of other *kharif* crops, including sugarcane.
4. Composting and preservation of cattle urine.
5. Green manuring with *dhaincha, sanai,* etc., and growing green manure crops for seed.
6. Bunding the fields.
7. Strengthening the cooperative society, and utilising it fully for agricultural production purposes.
8. Planting trees and starting kitchen gardens.

9. Summer ploughing.
10. Proper utilisation of irrigation water.
11. Improvement of drainage.

The villagers will not be able to put in intensified efforts on all the items decided as solutions to their problems of increased agricultural production and improvement of soil fertility status. The villagers, the village institutions and the extension agency, therefore, have to decide on the priorities to be given to the items of the programme. The priority may be as follows.

1. Adoption of the Japanese method of paddy cultivation.
2. Composting and preservation of cattle urine.
3. Green manuring and multiplication of green manure seed.
4. Improvement of drainage.
5. Line-sowing, top-dressing, weeding and interculture of other *kharif* crops.

Plan of work

The extension agency, in order to make the programme of increased production in *kharif* a success, should take steps in the month of January to assess the requirements of supplies, finance, training, guidance (demonstration), publicity and evaluation. This can be determined in consultation with the villagers. A sound extension programme of any village will depend, to a very great extent, on the participation of the village families. It is, therefore, necessary that members of the village families are contacted individually by extension workers. All the programmes stated above have to be discussed and got approved by the participating families and estimates of credit demands, seed, fertilisers, insecticides and other requirements of individual families prepared by the Village Level Worker. The programme of all the participating families in the village will constitute the village agricultural production programme.

Role of Committees

In order to prepare an agricultural production programme at the village level, it is very necessary to actively associate the *panchayat*, cooperative, school, rural youth club and *mahila mandal* of Sherpur with the task of planning. Ultimately, the responsibility of planning any type of production programme will fall on the village committees. It will, therefore, be appropriate if a Village Action Committee comprising the following is

constituted to prepare the agricultural production programme of the village, devise methods to execute it and to evaluate the success of the programme.

1. Village *Pradhan* (Chairman)
2. One representative of the cooperative society
3. One representative of the village school
4. One representative of the rural youth club
5. One representative of the *mahila mandal*
6. Two trained agricultural family leaders
7. Tube-well operator.
8. *Panchayat* secretary
9. Village Level Worker (Secretary and Convenor)

It will be very necessary that one representative of each family participating in the agricultural production programme is given proper training at a suitable place by the extension agency before the start of the *kharif* programme in the field. For this, a training camp should be arranged in the village in the month of March. Selected potential village leaders may also be given intensified and specialised training in the items of increased agricultural production. As soon as the training of these leaders or Gram Sahayaks and representatives of the participating families is over, the Village Action Committee should meet to determine the methods of securing the largest possible cooperation of villagers to implement the programme and to assess the requirements of supplies. The Village Action Committee may also consider ways and means of solving the difficulties standing in the way of successful implementation of the programme.

A list of the families in the village who may find it difficult to implement the programme may also be prepared and kept in the registers so that the Village Action Committee may help them in solving their difficulties.

The participating families should be divided into convenient units for the follow-up to be done by the Gram Sahayaks. The Village Action Committee should also prepare a plan for mobilising women and children to assist in the programme. The village school teacher should mobilise the school children for publicising the programme. The Gram Sevika or the voluntary women leaders should approach village women to obtain their willing cooperation in the production programme. The Gram Sahayak and the Gram Sevak, in consultation with each participating family, should prepare a family-wise production plan

which should be retained by the individual participating family. Similarly, a consolidated village plan based on individual family plans should be prepared and kept in the *panchayat* register.

One or two meetings of the Village Action Committee will be very desirable for making out detailed and complete plans of action for the village. Tentative but realistic requirements of seed, fertiliser and credit should be worked out and the extent to which the village cooperative can take the responsibility of supplying them examined. The programme for multiplication of green manure seed, compost making, utilisation of irrigation water should be prepared by the Village Action Committee in consultation with the participating families. After the village plan has been prepared, a meeting of the *Gaon Sabha* should be called to discuss it. The *Pradhan* and some potential Gram Sahayaks should explain that the real responsibility for increasing agricultural production rests with each one of the village people. It should be made clear to the participating families what help is available from the Block, and the approval of the *Gaon Sabha* should be obtained on each item with such modifications as may be necessary.

A list of requirements of seed, fertilisers and credit should be finalised and the responsibility of the cooperative society fixed in consultation with the *Sarpanch*. The Village Action Committee may meet again to discuss and assist in the implementation of the programme. Care must be taken that too many meetings are not held. More time of the Village Action Committee should be devoted to helping the participating families in taking up new agricultural practices. The Village Level Worker or the *panchayat* secretary must function in production programmes only through the Village Action Committee so that the work of the committee is encouraged, appreciated and strengthened. The committee, in this way, will be able to guide the planning of further programmes.

As mentioned above, it is very essential for the success of the programme at family, village and Block levels, that training of the official staff—Village Level Workers, *panchayat* secretaries cooperative supervisors and non-officials like members of co-operatives, Gram Sahayaks and voluntary leaders is arranged in the month of March. Supply of improved seed, insecticides and fertilisers must be arranged in time and each farmer should have all the required supplies for the *kharif* programme much before the sowing of the particular crops. Cotton seed should

be available to cultivators in the month of March, while paddy, maize and *jowar* seed should reach every cultivator the latest by the second week of May. The second estimate on the basis of demands placed by the Gram Sahayaks and participating families for the requirements of different fertilisers should be sent to the Block Development Officer latest by the second week of May so that additional supplies are available in time. *Tacavi* requirements and estimates of loans to be given through the cooperatives in the Block should be sent by the Block Development Officer to the Development Commissioner latest by 15th March. The movement of the canal water must be intimated by the concerned irrigation office to the Block Development Officer so that the sowing programme of paddy and top-dressing with ammonium sulphate may be regulated accordingly. There should be a proper liaison between the Block Action Committee and the irrigation authorities, while the Block Action Committee should also keep a perfect liaison with every Village Action Committee.

Teaching aids, information material like special journals on agriculture, puppet shows, local dramas, photo stories and radio and local papers should be used as much as possible in popularising the items of the *kharif* production programme in each village. It is desirable that case histories of progressive farmers of Sherpur are published in local papers which might have circulation in the neighbouring villages and Blocks. This will give a good impetus to other farmers to adopt the new methods. Film strips and films on production items will also be very useful aids.

The agricultural production programme in village Sherpur and in the Block area should continuously be checked and supervised by the members of the Village Action Committee, Block Action Committee, Extension Officer (Agriculture) and the Block Development Officer. The Gram Sahayaks and the members of the Village Action Committee should frequently visit the participating families and see the progress made in the production programmes. This will give encouragement to the participating families as well as provide an opportunity to the members of the Village Action Committee and the Gram Sahayaks to assess the progress of the programme.

A time-table of the various activities to be undertaken during the season should be drawn up.

For the agricultural production programme, the time-table may be drawn up as follows:

1. *Preparation stage :*

1.	Training of village leaders and members of participating families.	From first week of March.
2.	Demonstrations, discussion meetings of all the villagers.	-do-
3.	Raising nursery for the Japanese method of paddy cultivation.	From second week of May to third week of June.
4.	Line-sowing of maize and cotton.	-do-
5.	Supply and distribution of fertilisers, and preparations for their application.	-do-
6.	Transplanting of paddy by the Japanese method.	From 15th June to 31st July.
7.	Sowing of green manure crops.	-do-
8.	Sowing of green manure crops for seed multiplication.	From 15th June to 15th July.

2. *Follow-up stage :*

This stage will start from the first week of July and will last up to September. During this stage, the following programmes will be undertaken :

1. Top-dressing paddy with fertilisers.
2. Use of paddy weeder.
3. Hoeing and weeding of cotton and maize sown in lines.
4. Distribution of fertilisers.
5. Turning under of green manure crops.
6. Transplanting of the seedlings of *dhaincha* on the borders of paddy, cotton and *jowar* fields.
7. Bunding of fields.

3. *Evaluation stage :*

This stage will start in the month of October and will continue up to November. During this period, crop-cutting will be done in paddy for the estimation of increased yields due to the Japanese method and for evaluating the success of the agricultural production programme.

For preparing a plan for the agricultural production programme in the Rampur Block, it is necessary that similar village plans be developed for each of the 77 villages in the Block. Consolidated agricultural production plans of all the villages will form the Block plan. It is essential that a committee similar to the Village Action Committee is also constituted at the Block

level. This committee can be called the Block Action Committee of which the following should be the members:

1. Block Development Officer (Chairman)
2. Extension Officer (*Panchayat*)
3. Extension Officer (Cooperation)
4. Extension Officer (Social Education)
5. Extension Officer (Women's Programme)
6. Sub-Deputy Inspectors of Schools
7. Representative of the Irrigation Department (Canals and tube-wells)
8. Extension Officer (Agriculture) (Secretary)

The main functions of this committee would be as follows:

(a) Arrangement and adjustment of supplies within the Block.
(b) Ensuring timely supplies of irrigation water.
(c) Devising methods for the maximum utilisation of the irrigation potential.
(d) Reviewing the progress of the campaign and reporting to the District Action Committee.
(e) Solving difficulties of the Extension Officers and Village Level Workers regarding agricultural production problems.
(f) Devising methods of giving guidance and directions in agricultural production programmes.
(g) Devising methods of evaluating the production programmes and measuring the impact on farmers.
(h) Highlighting difficulties in the production programme to district and state officials.

The Block Development Officer should divide his team into small circles and each circle may be looked after by each Extension Officer. This will provide an opportunity for close supervision of the work done in the production programme by the Extension agency and the villagers. The main role of the Extension Officers and the Extension Officer (Agriculture) should be to help in conducting demonstrations and guiding the farmers in adopting the improved practices of agriculture in a correct way. This will also provide for them an opportunity to check up the progress of work. The Village Action Committee, the Block Action Committee and the Block team should periodically evaluate the reasons for success or failure of the programme items in order to build up future programmes in such a way that they are readily acceptable to farmers.

Review of Progress and Projection of Plans

When the programme is over, the Village Action Committees may meet, discuss and suggest further improvements in the programme. The suggestions of these committees may be considered at the Block level by the Block Action Committee and the suggestions of the Block Development Committee may be considered by the District Action Committee. In this way, it is necessary that periodically, usually once a year, a comprehensive review of the programme be made in order to evaluate the progress to date and to chalk out the outline of the plan of work for another year.

Conclusion

The most challenging responsibility every extension worker in an under-developed country shoulders today is that of utilising and developing the limited human, monetary and material resources for an alround development of the country. The challenge involves in itself the competence and ability on the part of extension workers to reach every family in a planned way. It involves the content and methods of programme determination, programme implementation and the relationship of people with extension workers as equal partners in the programme. Therefore, it is essential for each extension worker to understand clearly :

(1) the principles and methods of developing a sound extension programme at family, village and Block levels in a democratic way,

(2) the methods of helping and guiding village families to solve their home and farm problems,

(3) the methods of educating the people in making use of research findings for better family and community living.

(4) the methods of making the members of the rural community understand their responsibilities as effective citizens in building up programmes themselves for the welfare of the society.

Keeping these points in view, an attempt has been made in the preceding pages to generalise some of the effective principles and methods of developing family, village and Block programmes. An illustration of increasing agricultural production through a well planned approach at family, village and Block levels has been discussed.

We will have full satisfaction in our doings, if we adapt ourselves to the disciplined system of planned thinking and planned working, as someone has rightly said that 'yesterday is but a dream, and tomorrow is only a vision, but today well lived makes yesterday a dream of happiness and every tomorrow a vision of life.'

Selected References

Cooperative Extension Work. L. D. Kelsey and C. C. Hearne, Comstock Publishing Associates, Ithaca, New York, 1949.

Criteria for Procedures and Practices in County Extension Programme Development. J. Paul Leagans, Cornell University, New York, 1950.

Kharif Campaign—A Guide-book for Extension Workers. Department of Agriculture, Government of Uttar Pradesh, Lucknow, 1955.

Making Conference Programme Work. M. F. Stigers, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1949.

Methods and Programme Planning in Rural Extension. J. M. A. Penders, H. Veenman and Zenen, Wageningen, The Netherlands, 1956.

North Carolina Takes a Look at Programme Development. A guide developed by North Carolina Home Demonstration Agents and Federal Extension Service, United States Department of Agriculture.

Programme Encyclopaedia. C. A. Duran, Association Press, New York, 1955.

Report of the 5th National Administrative Workshop on Extension Administration. University of Wisconsin, 1956.

Rural Community Organisation. D. Sanderson and R. Polson, John Wiley & Sons, New York, 1939.

CHAPTER IX

PROCEDURES IN PROGRAMME EXECUTION

B. Rudramoorthy

THERE ARE THREE essential steps in programme execution : (1) giving wide publicity to the programme, (2) drawing up a plan of action, and (3) evaluating the programme during and after its execution.

Giving Wide Publicity to the Programme

A programme of action should be understood by everyone concerned with it. This is necessary if the people are to feel that the programme is theirs, and if their participation in the execution of the programme is to be effective. With this in view, the programme must be widely publicised in the villages where it has to operate. This publicity can be given through :

1. distributing printed copies (in local languages) of the programme,
2. explaining the programme to the villagers at a general meeting, and
3. explaining the programme and discussing it in village *panchayat* meetings, *cooperative society* meetings, *young farmers' club* meetings, etc.

Drawing up a Plan of Action

A very important step in programme execution is the drawing up of a plan of action. A plan of work or action is a detailed schedule of activities for a given period of time, say one year, specifying the roles the different persons involved have to play, the month or week or days in which the particular activities have to be carried out, and the different methods to be used. In short, it tells in detail what is to be done, and when, where, how and by whom it is to be done.

The following are some of the important features of a plan of work:

1. It covers a definite period of time.
2. It is flexible enough to meet the changing conditions or any emergency that may arise.
3. It specifies the calendar of activities.
4. It specifies the ways and means of arranging for supplies and services, not only for demonstration purposes, but also for the use of villagers in applying the proposed improved practices.
5. It specifies the role of different persons, organisations and institutions.
6. It specifies the methods to be used.

Writing about the plan of work, Albert Mayer[1] says: "The concentrated tasks of the year's programmes must be closely scheduled, not only in relation to the people's readiness for them, but also in relation to each other. Taking the coming year's targets and breaking them down into exact dates, places and persons served is an excellent device for controlling project operations. The resulting time-table acts as the operating arm of the year's plan. Needs for supplies can be balanced seasonably so as to avoid overloading of project workers, and Village Level Workers can use the time-table as a framework within which they can plan their own efforts week by week."

It is, therefore, very essential to have a plan of work for putting the programme into action. "A crucial step in the extension cycle is putting a programme and a plan into action. This is the step at which the programme moves from paper plan to actual operation. It means persistently carrying out the plans from day-to-day so that at the end of the year, as much as possible has been done, and properly done to accomplish the objectives."[2]

Specify the roles of different persons involved in programme execution. It is the villagers who make the change, and, therefore, execute the programme. Nevertheless, it becomes often necessary for the extension workers, particularly the Gram Sevak, to stimulate the villagers to take action by using proper extension methods. The Gram Sevak is the primary agent of change at the village level. It is very important, therefore, that he should understand his role very clearly. Without this understanding

1. *Albert Mayer and associates,* Pilot Project in India. University of California Press, 1958.

2. *Division of Extension Research and Training.* Evaluation in Extension. Federal Extension Service, USDA, 1956.

there is always the risk of either the Gram Sevak often doing the jobs for the villagers or not properly guiding them and stimulating them to action at appropriate times.

Similarly, the Extension Officers, Block Development Officers, District Officers, and all others in the line have an important job to support and strengthen the Gram Sevak. Over-enthusiasm or lack of sufficient faith in the Gram Sevak's capacity may sometime prompt them to do the Gram Sevak's job. This will not only make their work ineffective, but weaken the very institution of Gram Sevaks as the principal agents of change at the village level. Hence, it is very essential that all the extension workers realise their roles very clearly.

Lack of a clear definition and understanding of their roles on the part of the superior extension workers will lead to a lot of difficulties. Their contacts with the Gram Sevak, instead of supporting and strenthening him will be a burden on him. This will lead to a greater emphasis on inspections, checks and counter-checks instead of on programme guidance which the extension workers, more particularly the Gram Sevaks, so badly need. A clear definition and understanding of the role each individual extension worker from the Gram Sevak upwards has to play will offset such a situation from developing.

Specify the methods to be used. To help rural people execute their programmes, or in other words, to help them adopt the desired changes, the Gram Sevak has to use effective extension methods. For this, he has to have a clear understanding of the knowledge and skills needed for the effective use of different extension methods and the learning—acting process. He must also know the people's attitudes, values, aspirations and needs. With this background understanding he should be able to use the appropriate extension methods to stimulate and help people to action in the direction of desired changes.

There are a number of different extension methods. Mention may be made here only of a few of these for purposes of illustration.

1. *Listening and observing.* Quite often, extension workers have the tendency of keeping on talking, lecturing and advising the rural people. The latter have experiences of their own which have to be first patiently heard and understood before any attempt is made to introduce changes.

2. *Systematic discussions.* Systematic discussions both with individuals and groups are necessary to help people identify their problems, and also to work with them or think with them about the possible solutions to these problems.
3. *Demonstrations* (both result and method). The next step after identification of problems and working out solutions is to organise appropriate demonstrations where rural people see the desired change in action, its advantages, and discuss it with their leaders and the people who have directly participated in the demonstrations. Then they will get convinced about the advantages of the changed practices.
4. *Group approach.* Extension workers should be well trained in group techniques, as they will be working with many groups and communities such as the village *panchayat*, cooperative society, young farmers' clubs, farmers' organisations and others. Extension workers should be trained in such methods of working with groups as talking, organising group discussions, role-playing, seminars, panel discussions, symposiums and others.

The foregoing are some of the basic educational methods which help establish the communication process. The importance or effectiveness of these methods in stimulating villagers' action cannot be overemphasised. Carl Taylor[1] says: "But the thing of which I am surest is that only to the extent that these basic grass-roots methods are used, and these basic grass-roots jobs are successfully done in one village after the other, will the designed Community Development Extension Programmes have had the opportunity to demonstrate how sound they are."

There are other extension methods such as organising shows and fairs, campaigns, special weeks, competitions, village leaders' camps, etc. An understanding of the knowledge and use of these methods will equip the extension worker better to stimulate rural people to action in the direction of the desired changes.

The plan of work should clearly specify which of these methods should be used and when.

1. *Carl C. Taylor.* Basic Roles and Objectives. Kurukshetra (Sixth Anniversary Number). Publications Division, Government of India, Delhi, 1958.

Evaluating the Programme During and After Execution

Evaluation of the programme in action, from time to time, provides a basis for making advisable changes in teaching methods and other extension procedures.

The evaluation of a programme executed or under execution has to be done with reference to the original objectives set. Where the educational aspect of Community Development is not adequately emphasised and followed, there will be a tendency to evaluate the programme in terms of physical or material achievements. Physical targets and achievements are no doubt important. They have relevance only to the extent people are educated and are stimulated to adopt changes of their own will. Hence, in evaluation, it is essential to consider the qualitative aspects such as changes in the attitudes of people.

Thus, it will not only be necessary to count the number of meetings, of say cooperative societies and village leaders, but it will also be necessary to have more information about the number of people who attended the meetings, the number of times the same persons attended the meetings, etc. It is not enough to find out the number of ploughs sold or bought. One must find out the number of times they have been used. Another aspect to be evaluated is the spontaneity of action taken by the villagers, the number of practices or programmes carried out and being carried out by the villagers without frequent pressure from the Gram Sevak; in other words, the number of practices which have become a moral routine. These aspects will give an indication of the extent to which the villagers have gone successfully through the education process.

Systematic evaluation should provide information about the effectiveness of the various methods used, and the various steps taken for executing the programme. Such a finding will help the villagers and extension workers improve their present methods.

Evaluation also provides a source of satisfaction both to the villagers and the extension workers in that it provides for them a sense of achievement. This will further help stimulate them to greater action and give them a strong conviction in the use of educational methods in solving their problems.

Evaluation can be taken up in the following ways: periodic reports, special studies by extension workers individually or jointly with selected villagers, planned visits to villages for study of specific programmes, and opinion surveys.

Some Important Aspects in Programme Execution

Use of village leaders. Village leaders in whom people have confidence and respect, and not those whom they fear, are an asset to the development programme. What their respected leaders say and do have more relevance to the village people than what outsiders, including even the Gram Sevak, might say and do. For this reason, extension workers and particularly the Gram Sevaks must be constantly on the look out for village leaders and work with them. It is also one of the main jobs of a Gram Sevak to develop village leadership. To enable the Gram Sevak to do this he should be properly oriented in the methods of locating and working with village leaders.

From his vast experience in the pilot project at Etawah, Albert Mayer[1] writes: "We want to develop village leadership in the villages in order that thinking, activities and progress may become more and more indigenous, self-sustained and self-renewing. If we, outsiders, however sympathetic and understanding, can progressively diminish our own usefulness, we shall have performed our most important function."

The Gram Sevak can locate village leaders by constantly observing and asking a cross section of villagers to whom they look for leadership, and for what things the people look to them for leadership. Keen observation during demonstrations, village leaders' camps, and at times of emergency will help Gram Sevaks locate village leaders. It becomes, therefore, one of the very important activities of Gram Sevaks to be constantly locating and developing village leaders. When village leaders become convinced of the usefulness of the programme and take the initiative in adopting improved practices, the rest of the villagers will not find it difficult to follow them.

Organisation and institutions. It is important that in helping the village people implement their programme, proper arrangements are made to provide adequate supplies and services in time. Without this, not only the programme cannot be implemented, but villagers also begin to lose faith in the programme. Also, it is important that the continuity of the new services which are being built up in the villages on a permanent basis is maintained. It is for this reason that cooperative institutions should be helped to function effectively so that they may render the required supplies and services to villagers.

1. *Albert Mayer and associates.* Pilot Project in India. University of California Press, 1958.

It was mentioned earlier that one of the important jobs of the Gram Sevak is to stimulate villagers to think, plan and organise action. This will be facilitated if the voluntary group effort, which already exists in villages, is made use of. This voluntary group effort has to be further organised and strengthened. The formation of young farmers' clubs, *mahila mandals*, farmers' organisations, and such other *ad hoc* or voluntary organisations, and the statutory bodies like village *panchayats* will strengthen organised group effort. It is the Gram Sevak's foremost job to work with these organisations and institutions and help them develop so that these can provide, on a permanent basis, the leadership and services to villagers.

Committees. Programme execution will be facilitated by the constitution of at least one committee, the village production committee or village planning and production committee in each village. This production committee may be a sub-committee of the village *panchayat*, or a separate body with close working relationship with the *panchayat*. Such a committee consisting of progressive villagers will help in the process of planning, implementation and evaluation of the programmes. While providing a good scope for progressive villagers to pool their experiences and views in planning for village development, such committees actually strengthen the institution of village *panchayats*.

Above the village level, the Block Development Committees, or the Taluka Boards or *panchayat samitis* and their sub-committees perform this role. In a democratic set-up, the importance of committees, consisting of representatives of the people, in the planning, execution and evaluation of the programmes cannot be over-emphasised. Hence, the extension workers' job is to help promote the proper working of such committees.

Village participation. In both programme planning and execution, it is very essential that as large a number of people as possible should participate. For, as already mentioned, 'the programme becomes theirs by participation.'

Coordination of efforts. The execution of a programme requires a well-planned coordination of efforts. Without coordination not only much of the efforts will be wasted, but frustrations and frictions among the various persons and agencies involved will result. This coordination can be brought

about by:

1. defining the roles of each individual involved in the programme,
2. conducting discussions during the various stages of the planning and execution of the programme through regular staff meetings,
3. having a systematic programme guidance in the villages, and
4. frequently checking the arrangements made for providing supplies and services.

Some Obstacles to Programme Execution

Village factions. Many villages have factions which may be due to a variety of reasons such as social, domestic, religious, caste, etc. Working directly for the dissolution or removal of the factions may not carry the Gram Sevak very far in either removing the factions or in getting the villagers to accept improved practices. In fact, the situation might become more difficult for him to work in. On the other hand, if the Gram Sevak accepts the existence of factions as normal in a village, and if he helps the members of both the factions to initiate programmes to fulfil their respective needs, and if he uses the competitive spirit of the members of both the factions, the chances of his success in getting the village to move are greater. According to Albert Mayer[1] "The existence of factions cannot be denied or ignored. They can be realistically recognised and their competitive drive harnessed to a positive course. . . "

Without proper realisation of this basic fact, many Gram Sevaks have encountered a number of difficulties in their efforts to introduce new practices in villages; and, indeed, some have even made the situation more difficult for further approach. Yet, some of the Gram Sevaks have introduced programmes of direct interest to the members of the factions, and also some other programmes in which the youth from both the factions participated. This latter type of approach has helped not only bring both the factions together, but has stimulated them to participate in the programmes contributing towards the development of the village community as a whole.

Emergencies. In spite of the best of efforts, emergencies arise and the unexpected happens now and then during the implementation of a programme. There should be no cause for

1. *Albert Mayer and associates. Op. Cit.*

serious disappointment or frustration on the part of either the Gram Sevak or village leaders. The extension workers' important responsibility on such occasions is to analyse the reasons for the emergency with the village leaders, apprise them of the emergency, and stimulate them to think and plan for alternate action or for facing the emergent situation. The villagers should be helped to fully realise the situation and to plan for alternate action.

Administrative sanctions. In spite of well thought out plans of work and definition of the roles of individual members, sometimes disappointments happen from delays in administrative sanction or in not getting the necessary approvals for going ahead with the various steps in programme implementation. The recurrence of such incidents can no doubt be minimised by proper planning, involving the various administrative officials up in the line at appropriate stages in the planning and implementation of the programme, using timely reminders, or approaching them personally. Yet, when such disappointments or delays occur, the field workers should try to ascertain the reasons for such happenings, explain them to the villagers, and plan alternate steps with them.

Conclusion

One of the major objectives of the Community Development Programme is said to be 'destination man.' Helping individuals to become self-reliant and active citizens and to be conscious of their responsibilities for their own welfare as well as the welfare of the village community of which they are a part have been the major concerns of the Community Development Programme. This is sought to be accomplished through extension educational methods, stimulating individuals to think, act and participate effectively. Their active and willing participation in planning and implementation of programmes should make their life richer and living more satisfying to themselves, to their families and to the village community.

Selected References

Basic Roles and Objectives. Carl C. Taylor. Kurukshetra (Sixth Anniversary Number). Publications Division, Government of India, Delhi, 1958.

Evaluation in Extension. Division of Extension Research and Training, Federal Extension Service, USDA, Washington D.C., 1956.

Notes and Proceedings of the Study Camp for Pramukhs and Pradhans. Ministry of Community Development and Cooperation, Government of India, New Delhi, 1960.

Pilot Project in India. Albert Mayer and associates, University of California Press, 1958.

CHAPTER X

SOCIAL, ECONOMIC AND CULTURAL FACTORS IN EXTENSION EDUCATION

J. B. Chitambar

ESSENTIAL FOR THE effective performance of an extension worker is a basic understanding of the people among whom he works and of the environmental and other factors that influence the attitudes and behaviour of these people.

While working with the people to promote changes in their behaviour, an extension worker enters a field in which prediction of results and effects is by no means simple and precise. This is so because economic, social and cultural factors bear directly on the behaviour and attitude of people.

It is to the social sciences that the extension worker must turn for guidance in making such predictions and planning his strategy for action.

Influence of the Social Structure

In working with village people, the extension worker must recognise that just as the village has a physical structure, for example, its houses, topography, pattern of settlement, etc., so also has it a social structure. The physical structure is evident, but the social structure, being more intangible, is less evident and, consequently, little understood and frequently overlooked by the extension worker. The understanding of the social structure of the village and the factors therein that influence the promotion of change is essential for the effective planning and operation of a programme of rural extension work.

For the success of his campaign, the extension worker must study the area in which he proposes to operate so as to ascertain the factors that will facilitate his efforts and foster development, and those that will stand as obstacles in his path. Some

of these factors may be physical and tangible such as the topography, the lack or abundance of natural, physical or man-made resources. Some may be cultural and intangible, such as the attitudes, habits, traditions and beliefs of the people in the area. The extension worker must make an assessment of all such factors and their relation to each other and to village development. He must assess his own strengths and weaknesses, his abilities and failings, and having matched them against the factors favourable and unfavourable for development in the area, plan his strategy of action.

What are the social and cultural factors that influence the attitude and behaviour of village people and how do they relate to extension work? To answer this question is to analyse the social structure and to study how each aspect of the structure is related to the promotion of change by the extension worker.

Social and Cultural Factors

If society is defined as a group of people who have lived together long enough to have become organised and to consider themselves and be considered by others as a unit, then the social structure may be considered as the construction of the members of a society. The social structure meets the needs of a society and facilitates its functioning. The major components of a social structure are:

A. Institutions
   1. Government
   2. Family
   3. Religion
   4. Education
   5. Economic System

B. Groups
C. Organisations
D. Patterns of Influence
E. Value Systems
F. Media of Communication

Institutions

Village people in their interaction with one another develop certain well established ways of acting together which are stable and permanent and are found universally throughout the world. These well established ways of acting together have been referred to as the institutions in the society. The basic social institutions

are the government, the family, the religion and the educational and economic systems.

1. *Government*. The government at the village level in India is the *panchayat*. This has been formally recognised and established, and efforts are being made throughout the country to strengthen this institution. In his approach, the extension worker must recognise at least two factors about the existing *panchayat*. Firstly, that it being a recognised and established institution throughout the country, he should do his best to strengthen local confidence and trust in the *panchayat*. This he can do by giving it recognition, by channelling activities through it and by refraining from giving the impression of bypassing it. He can further act as a consultant to the *panchayat* members whenever necessary. Good, bad or indifferent, the *panchayat* stands as an important component of the village structure through which democratic action can be fostered and made effective. Secondly, the village extension worker must recognise that the existing *panchayat* that is recognised by the government has been formed on the basis of adult franchise and, therefore, may or may not include members of the old *panchayat*. When this is so, the recognised *panchayat* is usually not strong in its influence, and decisions are actually made by the old *panchayat*. There may thus be a dual *panchayat* structure in which the old *panchayat* has greater influence than the new one. This may result, and has resulted in many areas, in serious conflict and the extension worker has to face a dilemma in deciding his course of action.

Should he persist in operating through, and giving recognition to, the government-recognised *panchayat*, even though he knows that it is weak and ineffective and that he will prejudice the minds of the members of the old *panchayat* by such action which fails to give importance to them? Or, should he work through the old *panchayat*, giving it the importance and recognition since it is the most influential in the village? The answer would lie in neither of these courses of action but in a mid-path between the two. Let the extension worker recognise and live up to his role of a 'non-party' man. He would then do well to so plan his action that neither the government-recognised *panchayat* nor the old *panchayat* feel bypassed. A greater concentration of his efforts would, however, be unassumingly focussed on the old *panchayat* because of its influence and effectiveness. At the time of *panchayat* election, he should

encourage and urge people to think carefully about their choice of votes but should refrain from indicating the direction in which he feels they should vote. If such thinking and action is encouraged, the dual *panchayat* structure should, within the course of successive elections, merge into one or, at any rate, draw considerably closer.

2. *Family.* Although the smallest unit in a society, the family as a social institution is vital to the promotion of desirable change in the village society. The ultimate objective of the extension workers focuses on this unit as they keep before them happier homes and families as end products of the programme. In order to work effectively with the family towards the achievement of such objectives, it is important for the extension worker to understand the family structure and its functioning. The family usually consists of many members, each having prescribed roles of behaviour and action. For each member there is an area of life within which he or she can act and make decisions without reference to others. Some decisions can only be made by the male head of the house and others only by the female head. Thus, a decision to use gammaxene to rid the hair of lice can be made only by the women of the house. This would also be the case in certain child-rearing and cooking practices. The male head of the family takes decisions in a wide area (wide because of the patriarchal system of society) regarding the acceptance of changes without referring to other members of his family. The acceptance of certain improved agricultural practices such as line-sowing of crops and using fertilisers are examples of such changes.

A knowledge of the prescribed roles of behaviour of the members of a society is, therefore, essential for the effective promotion of desired changes by the extension worker. Prescribed roles are, however, just one aspect of family structure about which extension workers need to have knowledge and understanding. There are others such as the nature of the family, whether it is the extended joint family or the nuclear family, the composition of the family in terms of the sex of members, dependents, etc. All these and such other factors must be taken into consideration while promoting change. The extension worker would do well to carefully study these factors on the one hand and the changes that are to be introduced on the other, prior to planning his approach. Thus, to attempt to bring about change in cooking habits in a joint family by approaching

the wife of the youngest son would normally be a very incorrect approach. This would be true also if attempts were made to introduce through her improved child-rearing practices without first persuading her mother-in-law or at least making her more amenable to change.

Acceptance of improved practices in the home are basic to village community development. A knowledge and understanding of the structure of the village family and family life will enable the extension worker to so plan his course of action that acceptance of changes will be facilitated.

3. *Religion.* Religion is a powerful social institution that has direct bearing on the effectiveness of extension work. There is hesitance and reluctance to consider very carefully this factor and its influence because extension work is considered secular and there is no desire to interfere with the religious convictions and beliefs of the people. One cannot, however, avoid the fact that an understanding and appreciation of the religious beliefs and convictions of village people are essential to the success of the introduction of the desired changes. Religious beliefs and convictions should invariably influence the approach of the extension worker, since these weave through the various aspects of village life.

In his work among village people, the extension worker faces the caste structure and the creed composition of the village. These have direct bearing on the type and nature of changes that can successfully be introduced, the priority of their being introduced and the strategy to be adopted in their introduction. It is at this point that topics and targets fixed without reference to the area within which they are to be applied, become meaningless. Here again, the extension worker asks himself the recurring question : What is there in this aspect of the social structure that will further my programme and what will stand in my way ? An analysis of the situation in terms of the creed and caste structure should immediately present guide-posts for action. Some of these guide-posts will be obvious, but others only evident on careful analysis. Thus, to promote improved pig-raising for increased income in a predominantly Muslim village would be obviously the wrong initial approach as would also be attempts to introduce improved poultry keeping among Brahmins in the village. A study of the caste structure will reveal that certain types of improvements can best be made at the outset among certain castes and creeds from whence they may spread to

other parts of the village population. An *Ahir* (sub-caste of dairymen) will be more interested in suggested improvements in milk production than would a member of the *Teli* sub-caste. The introduction of improved methods of pig-raising would best be taken up among members of *Khattik*, *Pasi* and any other sub-caste that permits such occupation. For the introduction of new types of vegetables, the best approach may be to work first with *Kachhi* or *Murao* sub-caste families whose main occupation is this type of farming.

Extension workers should first study the existing situation from the point of view of accepted beliefs and convictions of the village society. Using this as the basis for action, they should promote the desired changes within the existing structure to the fullest extent and then let the changes spread as people are encouraged to think about the justification of adhering to some of the accepted beliefs. Change thus will come from the people themselves and as such will be in accordance with the programme objectives and operation. While improved methods of tanning and leather-work or improved methods of working with wood and metal for increased income through village industry may be initially started among *Chamars* and *Lohars* respectively, and well within the accepted sanctions and beliefs of village society, the extension worker may look forward to a time when the village society as a result of careful thought and reasoning on the basis of factual information modifies its sanctions and beliefs so as to permit other sub-castes of the society to take up, without fear of censure, such industries to improve their economy.

Religious festivals and *melas* form an important part of village life. In addition to being important as religious functions such occasions have a definite function of providing opportunity for people to get together on an informal basis. The extension worker can look upon these festivals and *melas* as potentially useful in furthering the programme of Community Development. Promotion of carefully selected improved practices may be organised through demonstrations, exhibits, and by using other teaching aids at the *melas*. It is essential to understand the meaning and purpose of the *mela* since this will help the extension worker select the type of improved practices to be promoted at the *mela*. Too often, exhibits and stalls set up at *melas* for the purpose of promoting the agricultural extension programme are a jumble of teaching aids dealing with too great a number

of improved practices to make a significant impact on the village people.

For example, a local religious festival meant specifically for women would provide an excellent opportunity for promoting improved practices of bringing up children, home improvement practices and other such topics. Then again, a religious festival like Dipavali provides great scope for the promotion of improved health and home practices, home decoration, cleanliness, etc. Public health campaigns would normally have a far greater chance of success if planned carefully during this season. Other examples can be given, but basic to all is an understanding and appreciation of the role of religious festivals and *melas* in village life and on the part of the village worker in terms of their relevance to the promotion of desired change.

An extension worker must recognise the influence of his own creed and caste on himself and consequently on his activities, and on the village society. He may find that there are occasions when his personal inhibitions stand in the way of effective extension work. There may be other occasions at which he is unable to work with certain sub-castes and sections of village society because of the inhibitions on its members that relate directly to his creed and caste. This is an important factor which the extension worker must frankly recognise in the planning and execution of his programme, for it has important and far-reaching effects. A study of this aspect of extension work has revealed that there is a definite pattern of selectivity on the part of the extension worker with regard to the type of village people with whom he works for introducing improved practices and that his creed and caste are influencing factors in the choice of people with whom he decides to work.

4. *Education*. The village school as a social institution can be an effective channel through which the extension worker can promote development. It is important, therefore, that its influence, both existing and potential, be recognised. In the past, the school tended to serve no more than a section of the village society since, traditionally, it was only the upper sections of the social strata that learned to read and write and this has had its carry-over effect. It is important that this and other aspects of the background of this social institution be understood as the extension worker works for a wider coverage by the village school in serving the formal educational needs of the village society. This carry over bears directly on the caste-creed factor

and the consequent limited coverage of the school in terms of attendance of children of all castes and creeds. While the influence of this factor is decreasing as the composition of school children extends to include far greater caste-creed representation, it nonetheless still exists as an important factor in promoting change.

The extension worker must further understand that the purpose and also the content of learning has been traditionally different from the present concept. Imparting education for the purpose of accumulating knowledge, or as an end in itself, to a section of the society and not to others, is rapidly moving out as a socially accepted function of the village school. This is perhaps more because of the external forces than the internal ones. These external forces refer to programmes of national development which have recognised learning as a problem-solving device. The content of education imparted in village schools and other educational institutions has been revised so as to gear it more closely with village actualities. Reading and writing is, therefore, taught both to children and adults as a means of solving personal, family and community problems; as a means of more effective functioning and development of the village community on a democratic basis. If the extension worker understands and appreciates the background of the functions and purpose of this social institution, he will find himself better equipped to understand and cope up with problems such as lack of interest among participants of adult literacy classes.

The natural outreach of the village school is the village home which is the basic unit for village development. The existence of the village school as an accepted social institution provides great scope for teachers and extension workers to work in close collaboration for the promotion of the desired change in the village home and community. The carry-over of learning to the home through the students can be great and the school can serve as the hub for training village youth as useful members of their village community and as citizens of the country. The school can promote and foster the growth of youth organisations which, in turn, can play an important role in Community Development. Here then is another effective tool that the existing social structure presents to the extension worker to further his efforts towards village community development.

5. *Economic System.* Every society organises its relationships into a pattern that forms the physical means of livelihood.

This pattern is one that is acceptable to society as a whole as a means of meeting its economic needs and according to which it operates in the sphere of economic activity. The economic system as a basic social institution, then, refers to acceptable ways of making a living which are well established and have become stable and permanent in society. As a basic institution in rural society, the economic system includes land tenure and property and the occupational pattern which in a country predominantly agricultural such as India refers chiefly to farming. It is essential for the extension worker to understand the nature and importance of this basic institution and its ramifications as he has to work for increased agricultural production. Such an understanding is also essential since the economic incentive is important as a motivating factor in the promotion of change and the adoption of improved methods of making a living. It is not within the scope of this Chapter more than to indicate some of the implications of the economic institutions.

As the extension worker studies the economic system in a village he will recognise that it relates directly to religious institutions through the caste structure. The economic implications of the caste structure in an Indian village become evident when one considers its occupational character. For, traditionally this structure has consisted of carefully organised division of labour and mutual dependence. The Hindu *Yajman* system in a north Indian village is an excellent illustration of an economic system based on division of labour, exchange of services and mutual interdependence within the village society. Whatever be the nature of economic institution in a village, it is essential that the extension worker studies and understands it ; recognises how it relates to other social institutions and aspects of village life ; and identifies its implications to his programme of promoting change through the adoption of improved practices. With this knowledge and understanding he will be able to plan more effectively his strategy of action ; he will recognise that, like other social institutions, the economic institutions embody the ultimate values that people have in common and that these values have a direct bearing on the acceptance or non-acceptance of an improved practice. He will also recognise the probable futility of using the economic incentive in promoting a change such as poultry-raising among certain caste-creed groups and the definite advantage of using it among others. He will again realise that it is not illogical for a farmer to refuse to exchange his land for a

similar area elsewhere in a programme of land consolidation, even though the land offered is superior to his. He will know that certain systems of land tenure are a basic prerequisite to overall improved production and that other systems are opposed to it. He would further know that improved practices that demonstrate definite economic gains are often more readily accepted in certain types of farming such as intensive vegetable crop production than in other less highly commercialised types. While farming may be the chief economic activity of village people, it is important that the extension worker recognises that there are other activities also that need to be taken into consideration for effective development of the village community as a whole. There are *Loharas, Sonars, Kumhars,* and other such village groups all of whom are engaged in different types of economic activity that need development, and it is here that development of village industry enters as a part of the extension worker's programme.

Groups

A social group is defined as two or more people in reciprocal communication. Groups are thus universal aspects of human life. An individual needs group participation because he has grown up in groups, and has acquired wants that can only be satisfied indirectly by other persons. Some groups are based on common interest, others on divergent and even antagonistic interest of members. Every individual participates in a variety of groups and his behaviour varies with these differing group situations.

In gaining rapport in disseminating information and in other aspects of his work, the extension worker must be alive to the influence and importance of village groups. Too often, he recognises only formally organised groups, some of which have been referred to previously like the *panchayat* and the caste group, forgetting the informal forms of association that can be classified as village groups. If he were to consider the village in terms of sociologically defined groups, a wide range of groups with varied influence would reveal itself. He will understand the importance and significance of the group of women at the well, of the group of men at the blacksmith's shop or the tea shop, of the working groups, the social status groups, neighbourhood groups, recreation groups, etc. These and many others are groups that are not formally organised, but are important in decision-making. The extension worker must learn to identify

these groups and plan the strategy of his approach in accordance with the influence of these groups in the promotion of change.

While emphasis has been placed in the above on the importance of informal groups as influencing factors in extension work, an underestimation of the influence and significance of formal groups such as the caste group and the political group (*panchayat*) is not implied. For, it is through these formal groupings that the extension worker can and often must channel much of his activity. It is, however, doubtless that the informal groups play a major role of influence on the functioning and operation of formal groups and that hitherto the importance and significance of the role of such groups in extension work has not been adequately appreciated. Here is a vital tool that the social sciences present to the extension worker for effective use in the promotion of change.

Organisations

Organisations are formalised groups, each consisting of a systematically arranged unit of people with the object of achieving some common purpose or interest in which the role of each person is specifically prescribed. The *Veopari Mandal*, the *Ramlila Mandali* and the *Kirtan Mandali* are some examples of organisations in rural areas. As in the case of other groups the identification of organisations in the village and their influence and function is important in the promotion of change. The extension worker must understand that in his approach to an organisation (a) he is dealing with a systematically organised group of people, (b) these people are organised to achieve a common purpose, and (c) each member has specified roles and functions. He would need to face such questions as: Is the change that I am promoting in any way in conflict with the common interests or purposes of the organisation? Does it conflict with or affect the prescribed roles of any member of the organisation? (This will be particularly relevant to any programme of bringing about change among individuals who are members of the organisation.) What is the best approach in influencing the organisation so as to make it favourable to the development programme and to enlist its participation?

Answers to these and similar questions will help the extension worker plan strategically his course of action. Consider, for example, how the *Ramlila Mandali* can be used as a base from which to develop artistic talents and how the *Akhara* can be used

for developing physical culture and rural recreation. Consider further how the *Veopari Mandal* can, through encouragement and guidance, serve in building up a local channel of supply of useful commodities and services. Identification of organisations, appreciation and understanding of their function and role in the village will enable the extension worker to make use of these as a resource to foster development activity.

Pattern of Influence

The pattern of influence may be likened to an invisible network connecting and influencing village life in its various aspects with terminal points radiating more or less positive or negative influences. The terminal points may be individuals or groups, institutions or organisations, all of which go to form what is often referred to as the leadership structure or power structure of the village.

Much has been said and much has been popularly written about village leaders and their importance in programmes for promoting change such as the Community Development Programme. Too often what has been missed is the fact that leadership refers to specific qualities present, or absent, in a person, and to a specific situation in which these qualities are, or can be, operative so as to make for the efficient handling of the situation and the consequent influence of the person who handles the situation. From this emerges the fact that in a village there may be people who have qualities, acquired or otherwise, necessary to handle effectively certain situations, and others who can cope effectively with other situations. It is also true that there may be individuals who operate effectively in dealing with many situations and as a result are more influential than others in the village.

Leadership may be formal or informal. It is essential that the extension worker understands this and learns to identify village people who play each of these roles. It may not be difficult to identify formal leaders, as they exist by and large by virtue of the formal positions they fill, as for example the *Sarpanch*. To identify the informal leader is, however, not a simple matter, as it requires a careful study of the patterns of influence and leadership structure in the village. The questions faced by the extension worker in this task of identification are: To whom do village people go, when they need advice or when they are in trouble? Who helps them decide and plan what

decision to take and how to act? There are many factors that come into play in developing the influence of an individual in the village and it is essential that the extension worker understands and recognises these. A study made in the villages of Jumnapar, Allahabad District, indicates the following as some of the important factors that give influence and prestige.

1. Ability to handle situations and get matters settled at *tehsil* and district level. Influence with officials
2. Caste position
3. Wealth
4. Formal education
5. Good character

Without the knowledge and understanding on the part of the extension worker of the pattern of influence that exists in the village, the entire programme of development may be jeopardized. It would indeed be quite impossible to effectively plan the programme of action without some knowledge of this pattern. Identification of leaders, or the terminal points of the network of influence, is an essential step to be taken, and the extension worker must be certain that this identification reaches all sections of village society, since he should also recognise the existence of patterns of influence and leadership structure within smaller units that compose a village, such as caste and other groupings. Thus, for example, he will be able to effectively plan his approach in promoting acceptance of improved practices within a particular caste group and at the same time will understand how leadership within this caste group relates and affects leadership in the village community as a whole.

Value Systems

People pay attention to matters that are of interest to them. These matters of interest vary in the importance or worth ascribed to them by the people. Thus, in a society, there is built up a system of hierarchy or a priority rating of various items considered of less or more importance. In other words, society places different values on various items which form part of village life and these differing values go together to form the value system. This value system forms the basis for decision and choice-making in society. When a villager decides to spend money on his daughter's marriage rather than on a new roof for his house, he clearly identifies where these two matters lie in relation to each other in his value system. There are,

therefore, individual or personal values, and social values. Many social problems arise out of a clash of values where one group attaches high values to certain things which are not recognised as being important by another group.

It is necessary that the extension worker understands this as the basis of many conflicts among the people with whom he works. Attainment and achievement in terms of accepted values gives prestige to individuals and groups in a society. People will, therefore, be more amenable, if not sometimes eager, to accept changes that will result in achievement in terms of values and, consequently, in greater prestige. An analysis of factors that make for prestige in a village embody the major values accepted by the village society. Some examples of these factors are :

1. Caste of the individual
2. Term of residence
3. Age
4. Possession of land and type of tenure
5. Wealth and economic position
6. Hard work and physical stamina
7. Personal characteristics—truthfulness, honesty, reliability

These factors have obvious implications in the introduction of improved practices. Thus, the extension worker should seek to establish rapport with the village elders, get their general approval and show them due respect rather than give them the impression of being bypassed in his programme of village development. He should appeal to the farmer's love for his land in promoting soil conservation practices or practices aimed at enhancing its fertility. He should realise that consistent demonstration of hard work, honesty and reliability on his part would go far in winning confidence and rapport since such qualities have high values in the village. Unless he carefully studies the value system, he will not be able to effectively plan his programme of introduction of desired changes. Knowledge of the values held by village people will enable him to choose the types of changes most likely to be accepted and to avoid those which perhaps if introduced at the outset would jeopardize the entire programme. He will obtain the maximum participation of the village people since he will be working in their interest recognising what they consider desirable and important, and planning his approach accordingly.

Media of Communication

The media of communication are the means by which information or knowledge is passed from one group or individual to another. They are of two types: (a) media of communication within the village, and (b) media of communication from one village to another and beyond to the outside world. Like the pattern of influence in a village, there is in the village society a network of communication channels. The extension worker is basically concerned with communication and in his role as communicator he attempts to disseminate knowledge and information relevant to specific changes that he seeks to promote. He cannot do this effectively without adequate knowledge of the existing system of communication both within the village and between the village and outside. He, therefore, must study the functioning of the village society to determine how and through whom information is disseminated.

He must find out who the disseminators of information are and how they can be used for disseminating useful information to further his programme. By and large, communication within the village is carried out by word of mouth. It has been said that all that is needed to spread information is to tell the village *nai* or barber about it. While this may or may not be true, it is a fact that there are in the village, individuals and groups who are disseminators or 'passers-on' of information and who act as points of exchange in the communication network. Examples may be found in the many informal groups that exist in the village such as the work-group in the field, the gathering at the tea shop, at the blacksmith's shop, the group at the village well, and, in individuals such as the barber and the tradesman. The pattern will vary to some extent from village to village and area to area, particularly regarding individuals who are disseminators of information. It is, therefore, essential that the extension worker carefully studies the existing situation in the village as regards the individuals and groups who are points of exchange for information and the way in which they operate.

He would further need to have knowledge of the channels through which information from cities and towns is brought into the village. These may be newspapers, the radio, word of mouth, visitors, tradesmen and government officials like the extension worker himself and the Block staff. Contacts that take place at market centres and *melas*, at weddings, ceremonies and festivals

and such other occasions that call for a grouping of people at one or more points are important both in bringing in information from other villages, towns and cities, and in disseminating it in the area. The media of communication within the village is almost exclusively by word of mouth in the local village dialect and here it is of decided advantage for the extension worker to learn to speak the local dialect correctly. This goes far in helping him gain rapport. A common but unfortunate mistake made by the extension worker is to insist on speaking the village dialect even though he speaks it incorrectly. In such cases, it is far better to use as the medium of communication a language commonly understood by both and spoken correctly by the extension worker.

Economic Factors

While much has been said with regard to social and cultural factors that influence village extension work, there are certain economic factors that must be taken into consideration in the planning and operation of such activity.

One of these factors is the economic level of the villager. A study based on village conditions in central Uttar Pradesh indicates a strong correlation between the area framed and the acceptance of improved practices. Villagers who owned large areas of land were more amenable to acceptance of change than those who owned smaller areas. Taking the area of land as an index of economic level, this would indicate that the extension worker would be more successful in working with farmers having a larger than the average area of land than with those having a smaller area. This may be because the former are in an economically more favourable position and can, therefore, afford to take the risk of accepting an improved practice with less hesitation than those who are economically unfavourably placed.

Another factor may be the economic position of the extension worker in relation to that of the village people among whom he lives and works. There is a strong feeling held by some that the extension worker must be at the same economic level as the villager, if he is to be effective. The author submits that the basis of such thinking is largely sentimental and not factual. Experience strongly indicates that within certain limits, the effectiveness of an extension worker is not deterred by disparity between his economic level and that of the village people among whom he works. There is, on the contrary, evidence that

indicates a negative effect when there is close conformity in the economic level and living standards of the villagers and the extension worker. While this may still be open to question, it seems clear that within certain limits, the economic level of the extension worker as exhibited in his higher living standard in the village as compared with that of the villagers, is not deterrent to the acceptance of improved practices.

It is further important that in planning and operating his programme, the extension worker understands the economics of certain traditional practices followed by the villagers. For example, it may seem unreasonable that the farmer persists in sowing the local variety of wheat when an improved variety is available and has been shown by demonstration to be more productive. The farmer has learnt by experience to play safe and he realises that under existing conditions when the crops are subject to factors beyond his control (such as the elements), it is better to sow the *desi* seed which will give at least some return in spite of unfavourable weather conditions, while the improved seed under the same conditions may not give any return at all. It is essential that the extension worker appreciates and understands the reasoning behind the economics of such action on the part of the villager, if he is to operate effectively in the village.

Economic gain is a strong incentive for action on the part of village people and improved practices that have clearly proved favourable in this respect will have a strong chance of acceptance, provided they do not conflict seriously with the social and cultural factors. This has been discussed earlier as illustrated by the reluctance on the part of the villagers in adopting trades of another caste, though they are more lucrative. These then are some of the important economic factors that an extension worker must recognise as significant in the planning and operation of his programme.

Cultural Aspects of Promotion of Change

An essential prerequisite for the consideration of the significance of cultural factors in extension work is an understanding of the concept of culture itself.

Culture is the continually changing pattern of learned behaviour and the products of learned behaviour (including attitudes, values, knowledge and material objects) which are shared by and transmitted among members of society[1]. Thus,

1. *J. F. Cuber.* Sociology. Appleton Century Crofts, New York, 1947.

society refers to a group of people, and culture to the continually changing pattern of behaviour of these people. The culture of people in a society is not static but dynamic. It is continually changing because of internal as well as external forces or stimuli. Community Development and extension work is one of the major forces—perhaps the strongest today—in bringing about change in the culture of rural people in India. It is important that the Extension worker clearly recognises this fact, as it is one of the areas in which clear understanding appears to be greatly lacking. Community Development is a planned programme for the promotion of cultural change among the rural people towards desired goals. Change will occur whether or not the Community Development Programme operates. It is the direction and tempo of change within society that the Community Development Programme seeks to influence significantly.

In the culture of village society, there are some aspects that are desirable and others that are undesirable from the point of view of the programme. Considerable confusion in thinking results when it is stated that Community Development seeks to preserve the culture of the country, since the term culture in common usage differs from the definition stated above. Obviously, it will not be desirable even to attempt to preserve all aspects of culture—even if this were possible. What is actually meant is that the Community Development Programme seeks to preserve certain aspects of culture that are considered desirable by the programme, and to change those aspects that are considered undesirable.

The scientific understanding of the culture of the people among whom the extension worker operates is basic to the effective performance of his function. In fact, the greater the scientific understanding of culture, the greater will be the effectiveness with which a programme of development can be planned and executed. A further understanding of varying cultures of different groups involved in the programme enhances the chances of executing the programme with a minimum of conflict. This is particularly significant in a country such as India where the programme of Community Development seeks to cover a wide diversity of cultures.

The success of a programme will be deeply influenced by the extent to which the points of view and activities of development workers are coordinated and are consistent with those of the people among whom they work. Success will also be

dependent to a large extent on previous contacts and experiences with development workers of the people among whom the programme operates, the programme as a whole and the sponsors of the programme. If previous relationships have been amicable, there are greater chances for acceptance. If they are hostile, resistance is more apt to arise.

Aspects of culture are not isolated but are interrelated with one another. The extension worker must realise that one major aspect cannot be changed without affecting some other aspects. He must, therefore, prepare for a chain-reaction caused by such changes which influence other aspects of the culture. When he promotes improved home practices and handicrafts which necessitate a greater proportion of time of a village woman being spent at home, he must realise that this may influence the working pattern of the family as a whole, since the woman may not be able to assist her husband in certain farming operations. The family then has to make a decision as to whether the woman can more profitably spend her time in improved home practices and handicrafts or in helping her husband in the field. If the improved practice is accepted, this may influence other aspects of culture such as moving away from the traditional caste occupation. It is important that the extension worker clearly understands the implications of the change that he promotes so as to be prepared for the implications that may reach into aspects of village life other than those he is attempting to change. Much has been already stated in connection with the influence of existing social structure in the village and the importance of understanding its operation. It is essential that the extension worker recognises that chances of success in promoting change through the adoption of an improved practice are enhanced when his activity is canalised through the local institutions and the local leaders.

While it has been stated that culture is in the process of a continuous change, it must be recognised that this change is a gradual one. Community Development is not something that can be achieved overnight since coercion and compulsion have no part in it and the change that is considered worthwhile and desirable is the one that comes from the village people themselves. Drastic coercive changes usually result in conflict within individuals or between groups of people among whom such change is promoted.

It has been rightly stated that greater success may be

anticipated when a new improved practice is introduced in the familiar terms of something that is already present in the culture than when this is not done. Thus, the introduction of an improved plough with a plough-share that can be sharpened by the village blacksmith will be more readily accepted than an improved plough that calls for a new plough-share when the old one becomes blunt. There is more than economics and convenience involved in the farmer's preference to the former implement. The human relationship between the farmer and the blacksmith is also involved. For a farmer to get his implements sharpened by the blacksmith is an accepted pattern of behaviour in the village. It is also an occasion for the farmer to participate in social intercourse with the blacksmith and others that form an important informal group at the blacksmith's forge. The introduction of an improved plough that maintains this social intercourse-cum-service will be more readily accepted than the one that tends to break it. While this is true, entirely new improved practices for which there are no pre-existing equivalents in the culture, are more apt to be accepted than improved practices which conflict with those already present in the culture. For example, other things being equal, the introduction of a water pump will be more readily accepted in an area where raising of water from lower to higher levels is unknown than in the area in which water lifting practices already exist and come into conflict with the introduction of the improved pump.

The extension worker must realise that improved practices, if they are to be accepted, must result in rewards for the people and must be perceived by them as rewards. This means that the extension worker must clearly understand what constitutes a reward among the people with whom he works and what acts or deeds are performed by them when they wish to give recognition and praise to others. The definition of what constitutes a reward by the people among whom the programme is carried out is of great importance, for if the acceptance of changes desired by the programme make their acceptor liable to threat or punishment by society, these changes will be resisted. If the improved practice promoted does not in some way give an acceptable reward there will be little or no incentive on the part of the people to adopt it.

Some improved practices are readily adopted because they place the person in a position of prestige. The factor of prestige

as it relates to the extension worker is also important in the success of his programme. He stands a better chance of success if he has prestige with the village people for whom he operates his programme. This prestige position may be something that he can acquire and towards which he can strive.

Change is more likely to occur in those aspects of culture where there is lack of adjustment or stress, conscious or unconscious, than in those aspects which are stabilised and fixed. Lack of adjustment and stress in a society may result from its disorganisation due to war, pestilence, floods or such other calamities which result in the uprooting of the society, and its possible migration and re-establishment in other areas. At such times the field is ripe for the promotion of change. For example, when villages are wiped out by floods or fire and have to be relocated in other areas, the extension worker can take advantage of this opportunity to introduce improved practices with greater success than is otherwise possible. Several model villages and model settlements have been established with little resistance on the part of people under such conditions. The point is not that such calamities are desirable, but when they happen, full advantage can be taken of them for Community Development.

Changes in technology are usually more readily accepted than changes in other aspects of culture. It is thus usually easier to persuade a farmer to adopt the practice of sowing improved seed than to have him change his beliefs and convictions with regard to acceptance of an occupation of another caste. While it is true that programmes of development are influenced by the existing social structure and the cultural pattern, it must be recognised that this influence works in both directions. For social structure and cultural patterns are in turn continuously subject to considerable influence by successful programmes of development.

For his successful functioning in the village, an Extension worker must be sensitive to the influences that make people behave and act in varying ways. With a sensitive finger on the pulse of the village and a clear understanding of his role and the job at hand, he will be able to effectively plan the strategy of his action with greater confidence and ultimate success.

Selected References

Interrelationships Between Agricultural Development, Social Organisation, and Personal Attitudes and Values. A. T. Mosher. Unpublished Paper.

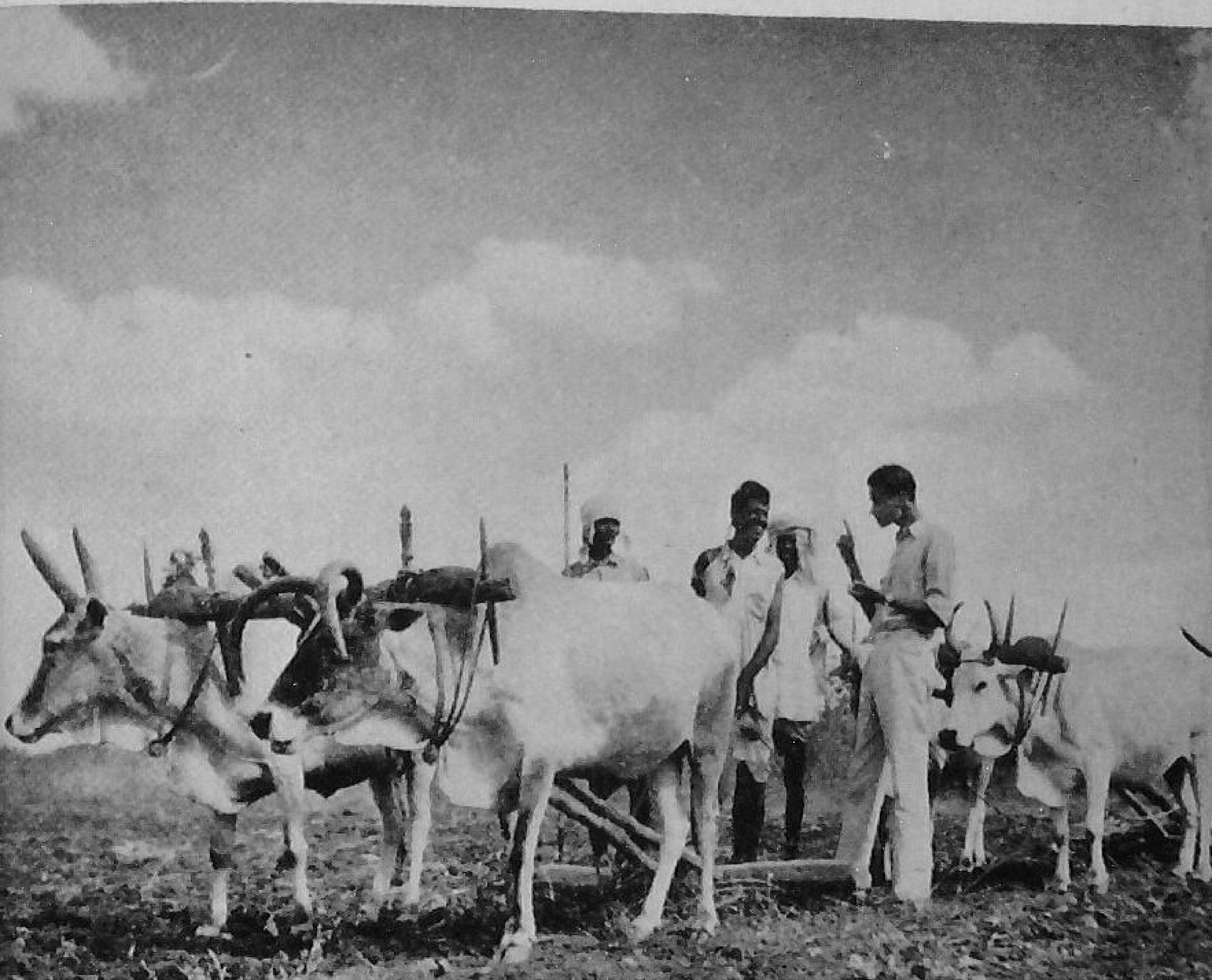
Rules of Thumb and Ethics in Applied Anthropology. C. Barnett. Unpublished Paper.

Sociology. John F. Cuber, Appleton Century Crofts Inc., New York, 1947.

Study of Muradapur Village in North India for the Purpose of Planning a Programme of Community Development. J. B. Chitambar. Unpublished Paper.

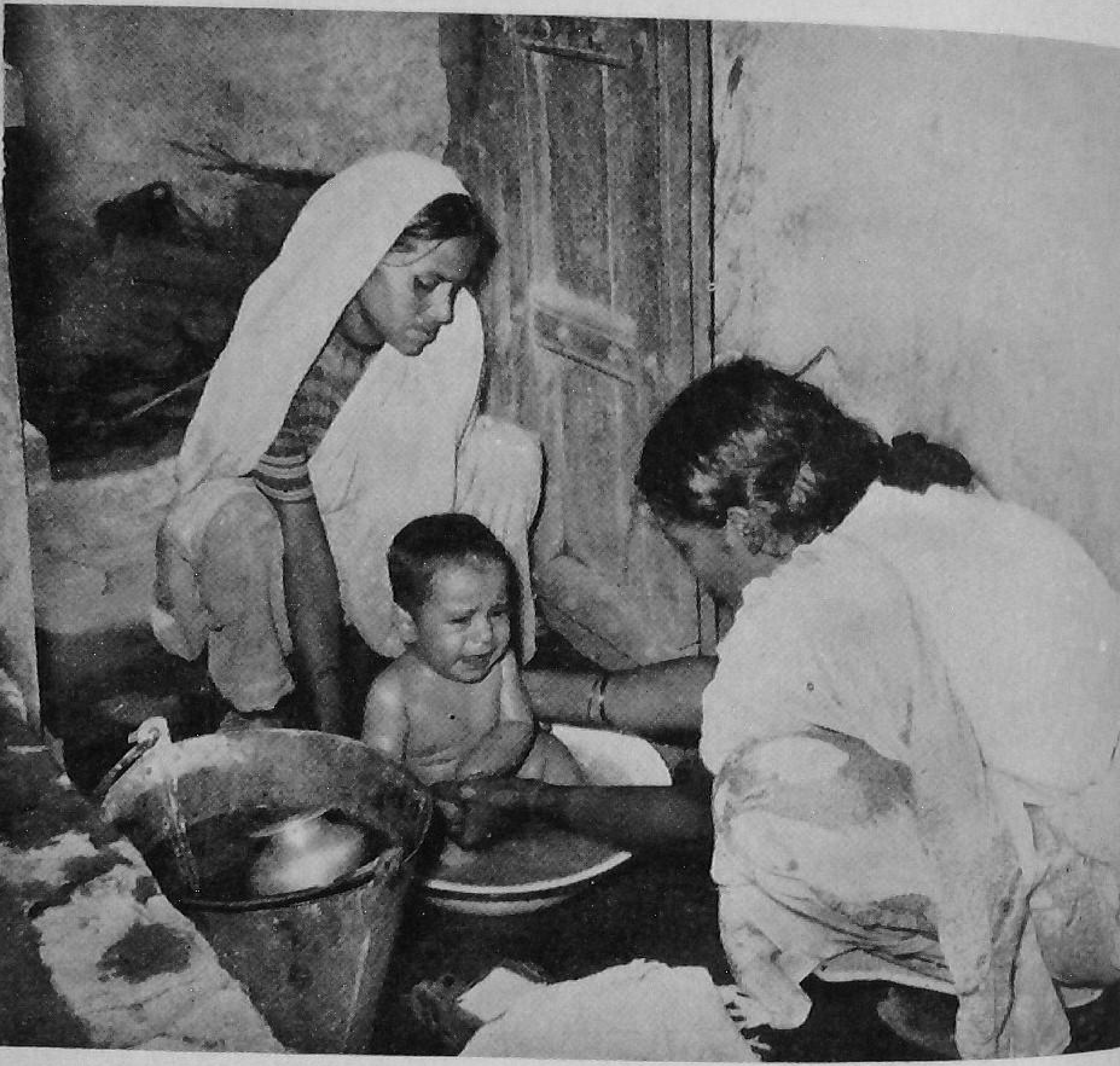
PART THREE

EXTENSION TEACHING



A Gram Sevak in Madhya Pradesh explaining to a group of villagers why they should adopt line sowing of crops

The great task of Extension workers is to help people gain a clear vision of what can and should be done, and then to assist them in the ways and means of attaining it.



A Gram Sevika in Maharashtra teaching a village housewife how to bathe her baby properly

Home Science Extension deals with education through which desirable changes are brought about in family living.

CHAPTER XI

CHARACTERISTICS OF TEACHING AND LEARNING IN EXTENSION EDUCATION

J. Paul Leagans

MAN MAKES PROGRESS on the basis of what he knows, what he thinks, what he can do, and what he actually does with his physical and human resources. To make progress, he must become dissatisfied with his present conditions of living and take the necessary action to improve them. In this process, he must identify and perpetuate only the useful from the past, exercise concern only for the promising in the present and focus all of these practices on achieving a better future. Man gains his ability to substitute the 'good' practice for the 'bad' in the use of his physical and human resources through learning. Learning is most effective when done under the influence of skilfully organised teaching. The results of teaching and learning—whether formal or informal—are called education the world over.

Extension Education is the process of teaching rural people how to live better by learning ways that improve their farm, home and community institutions. Since learning and teaching are always the keys to education, extension educators must understand at least the elementary characteristics of the process and be able to apply them in their work with village people.

The purpose of this Chapter is to identify and describe briefly some of the important characteristics of the teaching-learning process that are particularly relevant to Extension Education. The propositions are presented not as techniques to be practised but as ideas to be understood as the basis of good practice. The purpose is not to 'tell one how to teach,' but to provide ideas which will act as mental anchors that enable one to shape one's own technique in the light of personal experience and the situation in which one must formulate and carry on one's

teaching. This Chapter is intended, therefore, to provide the basic theoretical framework that underlies the more functional material contained in several other Chapters of this volume, particularly Chapters I, XIII, XIV, XV, XVIII and XX. These should be considered along with this one for maximum understanding.

Role of Extension Teaching and Learning

Good extension teaching is the successful creation of opportunities or situations in which people gain the abilities and the stimulation necessary for successfully meeting their needs and interests in such a way as to attain continuous improvement and self-satisfaction. The great task of extension teaching is to help people gain a clear vision of what can and should be done, and then to assist them with the ways and means of attaining this condition. This requires opening the minds of others to the great vistas of knowledge and action requisite to improved levels of living. Extension teaching must broaden the horizon of men and women and youth, and encourage a life's pursuit of improved living conditions as a person, a family member, and as a citizen of one's community, state and nation. An effective extension worker is dedicated to the task of helping people learn to put knowledge to work for them—to put it to use in ways that result in improvements in their living standards and ways of making a living.

As extension teaching is made more effective, extension work becomes more effective in closing the gap between the discovery of knowledge through research and putting these findings into practice on the farm, in the home and in the community. To help others improve is the central challenge to extension teachers. Physical and economic accomplishments are sterile without the development of people. They are only a byproduct, or a result of people's development.

There is now emerging in many countries of the world a great awakening and desire for better living conditions. Extension teaching can and must help people attain these aspirations. This requires faith in the ability of people to help themselves. It requires people who believe in progress which involves acceptance of change, and the idea that change in specific directions is good, and is attainable. Effective extension teaching is the art of encouraging people to want to improve their whole pattern of living and of helping them develop the necessary skills to do so.

Organised Forms of Learning are Most Educative

Civilised man has recognised for centuries that organised and skilfully executed conditions for learning are the most educative. This fact refutes the contention sometimes advanced that experience is the best teacher. It implies recognition of the idea that to become effective members of a society and to advance the society itself, people must have educational experiences beyond those attained through the everyday routine of living. It suggests man's concern for speeding up the educational process and structuring it so as to attain the desirable educative outcomes more rapidly and realistically than the school of experience can provide.

It is recognised universally since time immemorial that education in some form is important to man's development, that minimum levels of education need to be attained early in the life span and that it needs to be guided in line with a chosen concept of society and its needs. Consequently, people called teachers emerged early in man's history, institutions called schools were created, recorded knowledge of many kinds and in many forms began to be assembled in places called libraries. Institutions called colleges and universities emerged.

Although precedent is spread over centuries, the present century has seen the emergence of a form of education called adult education. Closely allied with adult education there has emerged in most democratic countries in recent years another form of education called Extension Education. The foregoing changes and numerous related ones have emerged from the acceptance of the principle that organised forms of promoting learning are most educative. All structured learning situations require at the minimum a teacher with the intent to teach and learners with the intent to learn. Hence, teaching and learning become prime essentials in any form of modern education.

A significant development in recent years in many countries of Asia is the creation of organised programmes to help rural people improve their methods of making a living and of living. These programmes differ somewhat in name, form, emphasis and scope but, in general, their purpose is the same—to help rural people live better. Successful rural development programmes in democratic societies use the process of Extension Education as the activating force.

The teaching–learning process is one of the most delicate,

significant and complex of all social processes. This is so because the role of education is to change the way people think and act. And the nature of people's thinking and acting determines the nature of a society. To change the way people think and act so as to be sound socially, effective economically, permanent physically, and enduring educationally requires that community development workers skilfully provide learning experiences that induce village people to make the needed changes in what they think and how they act, changes that give them continuing self-satisfaction.

Some Assumptions

The act of creating institutions for promoting rural development through Extension Education in free-choice societies regardless of their form rests on a number of important assumptions. These are :

1. That prevailing conditions of living and ways of making a living are not what they ought to be and that something different can and should prevail.
2. That it is possible to select, organise and administer certain resources of technology, personnel, teaching methods and physical facilities to help people achieve more desirable ways of living and of making a living.
3. That people need the guidance of professional leaders possessing the knowledge and skills necessary to help them learn to solve their problems.
4. That change is necessary, that change is a prerequisite to progress and that the *status quo* must be rejected, or at least modified, in favour of new ways of thinking and doing.
5. That people will continue their present ways of thinking and doing until they have new experiences that cause them to reject present modes of behaviour and adopt new ones.
6. That to cause people to accept new modes of thinking and acting requires greater incentives to adopt recommended practices than are offered by continuing with the present ones.
7. That progress is made only when someone has ideas about a better way and has the skill, courage and opportunity to try them out.
8. That progress requires change, but all change does not

necessarily result in progress. It is change in a specific, predetermined and desirable direction that results in progress.

9. That the most effective teaching and learning results from choice, not chance and from an intent to teach and learn under the most desirable conditions that can be created.
10. That educational changes in people are prerequisite to the attainment of other changes in a free society—that changes in the mind and heart of people must come before changes are made in the actions of their hands.
11. That the primary objective of extension teaching and learning is to help each individual, each family and each community achieve the highest level of living, that it is capable of economically, socially, aesthetically and morally, by means of aided self-help through education.
12. That inducing people to adopt and continue using improved practices usually includes four major aspects: technological, economic, social and educational. These areas are inseparably interelated. To become widely adopted and used, a recommended change must be technically sound, economically feasible, culturally compatible, and educationally attainable. When a practice is recommended, it is usually assumed that the first three conditions are met. The task then of extension teaching is to overcome problems in the fourth area—attaining educational acceptance.

These assumptions frame the central task and paramount challenge to extension workers. How to induce masses of rural people in newly developing countries to attain, by their own efforts with a minimum of government aid, a position of better living is not only a challenge to extension workers, but, indeed, to each government concerned. Obviously, the task involves at its core the problem of influencing village people to think and act differently. The means chosen for attacking this problem in democratic countries around the world is a process that has come to be called Extension Education.

Aspects of the Problem

Intentional teaching and learning, regardless of the method, content or purpose chosen, is aimed at changing people's ways of doing things in specific predetermined directions assumed to

significant and complex of all social processes. This is so because the role of education is to change the way people think and act. And the nature of people's thinking and acting determines the nature of a society. To change the way people think and act so as to be sound socially, effective economically, permanent physically, and enduring educationally requires that community development workers skilfully provide learning experiences that induce village people to make the needed changes in what they think and how they act, changes that give them continuing self-satisfaction.

Some Assumptions

The act of creating institutions for promoting rural development through Extension Education in free-choice societies regardless of their form rests on a number of important assumptions. These are :

1. That prevailing conditions of living and ways of making a living are not what they ought to be and that something different can and should prevail.
2. That it is possible to select, organise and administer certain resources of technology, personnel, teaching methods and physical facilities to help people achieve more desirable ways of living and of making a living.
3. That people need the guidance of professional leaders possessing the knowledge and skills necessary to help them learn to solve their problems.
4. That change is necessary, that change is a prerequisite to progress and that the *status quo* must be rejected, or at least modified, in favour of new ways of thinking and doing.
5. That people will continue their present ways of thinking and doing until they have new experiences that cause them to reject present modes of behaviour and adopt new ones.
6. That to cause people to accept new modes of thinking and acting requires greater incentives to adopt recommended practices than are offered by continuing with the present ones.
7. That progress is made only when someone has ideas about a better way and has the skill, courage and opportunity to try them out.
8. That progress requires change, but all change does not

necessarily result in progress. It is change in a specific, predetermined and desirable direction that results in progress.

9. That the most effective teaching and learning results from choice, not chance and from an intent to teach and learn under the most desirable conditions that can be created.
10. That educational changes in people are prerequisite to the attainment of other changes in a free society—that changes in the mind and heart of people must come before changes are made in the actions of their hands.
11. That the primary objective of extension teaching and learning is to help each individual, each family and each community achieve the highest level of living, that it is capable of economically, socially, aesthetically and morally, by means of aided self-help through education.
12. That inducing people to adopt and continue using improved practices usually includes four major aspects: technological, economic, social and educational. These areas are inseparably interelated. To become widely adopted and used, a recommended change must be technically sound, economically feasible, culturally compatible, and educationally attainable. When a practice is recommended, it is usually assumed that the first three conditions are met. The task then of extension teaching is to overcome problems in the fourth area—attaining educational acceptance.

These assumptions frame the central task and paramount challenge to extension workers. How to induce masses of rural people in newly developing countries to attain, by their own efforts with a minimum of government aid, a position of better living is not only a challenge to extension workers, but, indeed, to each government concerned. Obviously, the task involves at its core the problem of influencing village people to think and act differently. The means chosen for attacking this problem in democratic countries around the world is a process that has come to be called Extension Education.

Aspects of the Problem

Intentional teaching and learning, regardless of the method, content or purpose chosen, is aimed at changing people's ways of doing things in specific predetermined directions assumed to

be desirable for the individual and his society. This includes the adoption of improved practices on the farm, in the home and in community institutions. Bringing about desirable changes in these areas is a complex educational undertaking. The following are a few characteristics of the problem which should be recognised and dealt with successfully.

1. In all democratic societies, the results of extension teaching come from voluntary action on the part of people because their participation is on a voluntary basis. This fact means that the programmes must be so attractive as to draw them in as participants on a continuing basis.
2. In Extension Education the teaching and learning activity is aimed primarily at adults. Adults tend to change slowly. Through their experiences in becoming adults they have been forced to make up their mind firmly on many things and issues. They have developed habits which are strong and difficult to modify. They have formed set beliefs. Many of these have to be changed if progress is to be made.
3. Adults must understand the connection of ideas with each other and learn how to apply them to personal, family and community problems. This kind of teaching requires more than the mere posing of ideas contained in technical literature. It requires the most difficult part of the teaching art, that of synthesis—the skilful combination of separate elements of knowledge about a subject into a meaningful whole such as the various aspects of mixing and applying an insecticide. Given this kind of learning experience, the inquiring adult will have a proper base for action in the insistent present. It is only then that a person is really in a position (educated) to help himself improve his living status.
4. The task of extension teaching is to influence people to change over from bad to good practices. To do this requires effective learning which is dependent on effective teaching. In turn, teaching is dependent on learning. If no learning takes place, there has been no teaching. "If the learner hasn't learned, the teacher hasn't taught."
5. People cannot be persuaded to accept what an extension teacher wants them to do until he has gained their

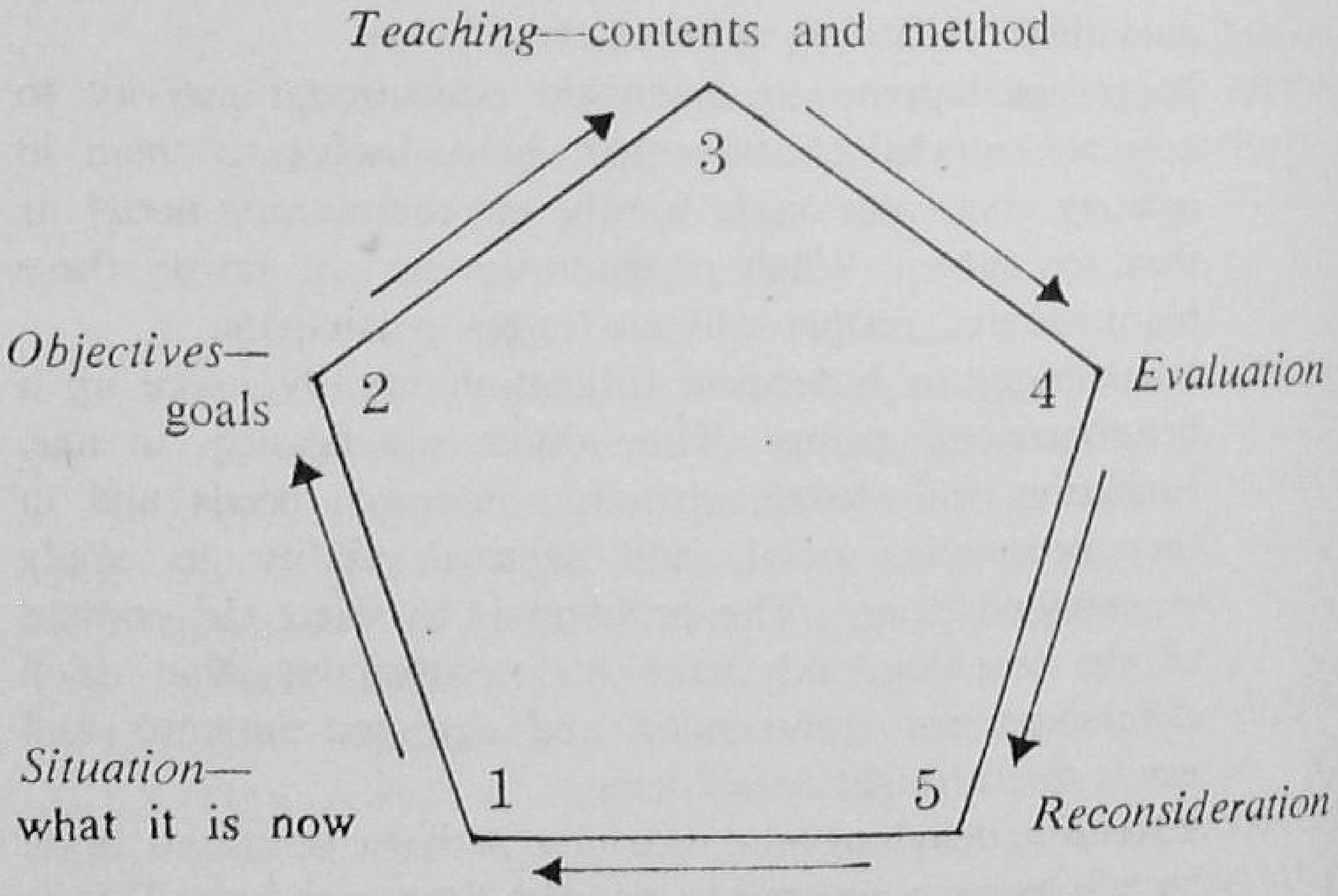
confidence and goodwill. Hence, the true art of extension teaching is that of making people want to listen to you and learn from you.

6. In the extension teaching situation, people cannot be helped unless they want to help themselves. Hence, programmes must start with the needs the people feel are important, and then lead to others that are important. People must become convinced that they have a problem and that the programme offered will help them solve it.
7. The wants of people must be reasonable in relation to the effort they are willing to make to satisfy their wants. All people do not want the same things at the same time in the same form. Their values differ, and so does their ability to achieve their goals.
8. People participate in extension educational activity to acquire knowledge and other help useful to them in meeting their personal, family or community needs as they see them. When programmes do not satisfy these requirements, people will no longer participate.
9. Participants in Extension Education usually make up a heterogeneous group. They differ significantly in age, education, knowledge, attitudes, interests, needs and in their economic, social, and physical ability to apply recommendations. The problem is to select the content of the teaching and make it so attractive that such differences are transcended and common interests and needs are brought into focus.
10. Extension teaching and learning activity is looked upon by adults as a secondary or part-time activity. This is proper, since most adults are not engaged in school as are their children. Adults have another kind of task before them, that of making a living for a family and guiding it successfully to adulthood. Further education, therefore, is looked upon by them as a side activity.
11. Extension teaching and learning must deal with ideas that have utility value and immediate use. Its primary purpose is not to provide information to be stored away in people's minds for use at some future time. Good Extension Education will, indeed, improve the nature and quality of future behaviour. But what people do in the future is shaped largely by what they do in the present.

Therefore, programmes of change must be designed to meet today's problems. These are known by careful planners; tomorrow's problems are not so well known and are sure to be different in scope, if not in nature. So, immediate action on the part of people in applying new knowledge is an essential criterion for judging the effectiveness of extension teaching and learning.

Steps in Extension Educational Process

Any effective educational programme involves five essential phases. The diagram below shows the sequence of steps that result in progress from a given situation to a new or a more desirable one.



The *first* phase is of analysing the situation. This requires a large amount of facts about all aspects of the situation. Information is needed about the people, their interests, education, what they think they need, their social customs, habits, and folkways. Facts are needed about the physical situation such as soils, type of farming, markets, size of farms, cropping systems, housing conditions, community services, and communication channels. Some of this information will shape up into problems, local, national and international, and show the resources that are available through organisations and agencies. New facts and research findings should be introduced by extension workers to stimulate understanding by the people of their problems. A

thorough analysis will examine the changing conditions and take a careful look ahead, comparing *what* is with *what should be*.

The *second* phase is deciding on objectives or goals to be accomplished. To be psychologically sound, the people themselves must be involved in selecting a limited number of goals and objectives. Objectives, at least in the plans of the extension workers, should state the behavioural changes in people as well as the economic or social outcomes desired.

The *third* phase is teaching. This involves choosing (a) what should be taught, and (b) how it should be taught. The first two phases are inherently to create teaching opportunities, but now the task is to create learning situations. The use of several different methods of communication must be made to stimulate learning. These will be chosen from mass media, and group and person to person methods. The ability to choose and use those methods best adapted to particular objectives is the measure of an extension worker's effectiveness.

The *fourth* phase is evaluating the teaching—determining the extent to which the objectives have been reached. This will also be a test of how accurately and clearly the objectives have been chosen and stated. Plans for evaluation should be built into the plans of work during earlier phases. Distinction is made between mere records of accomplishments and comparing the results with the original objectives. The process of evaluation may be simple and informal or it may be formal and very complex.

The *fifth* phase is reconsidering after evaluation has taken place. This step consists of a review of previous efforts and results which reveal a new situation. If this new situation shows the need for further work, then the whole process may begin again, with new or modified objectives. Hence, this process is continuous. The new situation may be different because (a) the people have changed, (b) physical, economic, and social changes have occurred, and (c) the extension worker is better prepared to recognise new needs and interests.

This concept of the extension educational process is intended only to clarify the steps necessary in carrying out a planned educational effort. It does not imply that these steps are definitely separate from each other. Experience shows that planning, teaching, and evaluation take place continuously, in varying degrees, throughout all phases of extension activity.

General Guides to Teaching and Learning and Their Implications in Extension Education

Leaders in the behavioural science, through many years of research, have identified and recorded in extensive literature a wide range of characteristics of the teaching–learning process. Some controversy among students of human behaviour is not yet fully reconciled. But this fact may imply a healthy situation. It suggests that researchers are constantly at work trying to throw more light on one of nature's most complex arts—that of cause and effect relationship in behavioural change. In part, this mystery accounts for the fact that social science literature, including that of educational psychology, presents many ideas in the form of assumptions, needing further scientific evidence, and some only in the form of hypotheses yet to be tested. Many principles, however, are well established and have useful application in Extension Education. It is with these and their implications for teaching procedures that extension educators should be concerned.

1. *Learning is growth-like and continuous.* Teaching must begin where the learner is, that is, at his level of knowledge, understanding, interest and readiness, or lack of readiness to improve. New ideas must be related to those already held by the learner and the pace of instruction must be adjusted to the learner's capacity. Ideas must be brought to the attention of the learners repeatedly and over a period of time.

2. *Learning should be purposeful.* That which is learned must make sense and be useful to the learner, as otherwise it has no real value to him. Since retention falls rapidly when no opportunity to practise is present, the best time for one to learn something is when it will be useful to him. Practice must be constantly appraised and redirected. To do this, continuous evaluation must be done by the instructors. Objectives must be clear and meaningful to the learner as well as to the instructor and kept in sharp focus. What is to be learned must be important to, and wanted by, a relatively large number of participants in the group, and must be attainable (a) through the educational process, (b) within the time limitations of the extension worker and the participants, (c) within the physical and economic resources of the participants, and (d) within the social condition and learning ability of the participants. The objective must specify the kind of change to be attained in the

participant and the subject-matter content to be dealt with. They must serve as a point of departure in evaluating teaching and learning outcomes.

3. *Learning involves appropriate activity by the learners that engages a maximum number of the senses.* Messages reach the human mind through the senses, namely, seeing, hearing, feeling, tasting and smelling. In Extension Education most of the messages to be learned reach the mind through seeing, hearing and doing. Some learners tend to be eye-minded and obtain messages most readily through the eye. Others tend to be ear-minded; some are more manual-minded and obtain messages easier through handling things and actually performing the task to be learned. Good teaching tries to reach any learner through as many avenues to the human mind as can be employed. The ability of a person to learn is also largely determined by his constructive power of imagination. One essential in the learning process is the building up of an imaginary picture of the desired results. The ability to build in one's mind accurate images of that which is to be learned is an original and creative mental operation and one which can be stimulated through wide use of demonstrations, visual aids and other symbolic means of representing ideas that make them easier to understand.

4. *Learning must be challenging and satisfying.* Motivation resulting not only from the student's interest but from the skilfulness of the instructor in creating learning situations is essential for making learning more rewarding. Appropriate and timely recognition should be given to student achievement. Standards demanded of learners should be suitable to their ability. The instructor should focus all teaching material and effort on building in the mind of the learner a mental picture of himself in the new situation that is valuable and satisfying to him. A friendly atmosphere in the teaching–learning procedure must be maintained at all times. The subject–matter must be significant to the learner and useful to him.

5. *Learning must result in functional understanding.* An effective performance as a result of new learning commonly does not result from knowledge alone, but from an understanding of the knowledge about a phenomenon. Hence, useful learning requires that students not only acquire new facts and ideas, but also understand how to apply them in realistic situations. Knowledge is a prerequisite to understanding, but it is not enough in itself because it is one thing to know something and

quite another to understand it. Memorising facts alone, for example, is temporary unless reviewed, understood and put to use in solving practical problems. So, subject-matter is useful only when it is understood and contributes to the attainment of a chosen objective.

To gain a functional understanding of technology requires knowledge of the whole, recognition of the parts and ability to see distinctions among the parts of related knowledge. For example, to be successful in the use of fertiliser in his wheat field, a cultivator must not only know that it is a good practice, but also the formula and the amount to be applied and when and how to apply it. Learners, therefore, must identify the connection of ideas with each other and with the problems. It is difficult to understand that which is formless. Until one sees the form—the whole of an idea and its parts—one cannot begin to understand it. Hence, one must first see the form of the whole, then its parts, then the distinct function of each part, then the relationship of the parts to each other and, finally, the relationship of each part to the whole. Ultimately, the learner must see the role of the whole idea in the total context of which it is a part and is expected to perform a role. So, effective teaching and learning requires that learners understand the meaning of knowledge. To attain this condition requires that programme content be organised and taught in meaningful units and learning activities selected that stimulate the use of situations.

6. *Learning is affected by the physical and social environment.* The general physical and social environment should be suitable to the kind of learning that is to take place and to the activities selected to form the learning situation. Physical factors including temperature, lighting, ventilation, furniture and seating arrangements are all significant considerations. The instructor should recognise and utilise the effects of the social environment on learning by involving the learners actively in the learning process. The learning situation should be so designed that the least possible energy is expended in adjusting it to the physical and social environment, and in maintaining the adjustment.

7. *Learning ability varies widely among individuals.* The level of communication and the level of understandability of the subject-matter taught must be in line with the learner's ability, not only to understand what is taught, but to apply it to his problems.

8. *Learning in general is a gradual process, usually requiring several exposures over time before extensive change results.* Extension teaching and learning is intended to induce learners to adopt improved practices on their land, in their homes and in their community. Since action now is the primary objective of extension teaching, a cumulative effect must be built up in the learner's mind to a point that results in action. This usually requires several exposures to an idea. To do this, different teaching methods must be used from time to time. For example, a new idea may be introduced to key village leaders through personal contact by the Village Level Worker. This might be followed up by a village meeting, and in turn by a method or result demonstration and the distribution of reading matter, all in a timely sequence. (Content and process must be reviewed.) The relationship between what has been learned and what is to be taught must be shown clearly and kept before the learner. Research indicates that learners in the extension situation usually must be exposed to ideas from four to eight times, and over a period of time, in order to induce a large number of them to take action.

9. *Learning capacity remains significantly high throughout normal adult life.* That adults *can* learn is one of the basic assumptions on which rests all programmes of adult education. Although adults normally maintain a good capacity to learn, their rate or speed of learning tends to decline somewhat after about middle age. This decline in most people appears to be associated with factors including less acute vision, less acute hearing, slower reaction, and especially with greater reluctance to learn, increased fear of failure, set habits in ways of thinking and doing, and decline in learning activities.

Some of the implications of these factors for extension workers in teaching adults are : (a) arrange the physical situation and teaching equipment so that all of the audience can hear clearly what is said and see clearly what is shown, (b) use visuals with sharp contrast in the form of charts, diagrams, pictures and legible writing, (c) speak clearly, distinctly and at a speed appropriate to the make-up of the audience, (d) present topic step by step in logical sequence, teaching one idea at a time, (e) employ every possible pictorial device to show relationship of ideas and materials, (f) arrange to include adequate repetition of ideas, and (g) provide rewards and encouragement to learners for good work by giving them credit for good ideas. Extension

workers should also make the teaching effective by asking for and using the practical experience of the learners, by avoiding punishment in the form of sarcasm, ridicule or social disapproval, by making physical surroundings comfortable and attractive, by providing something in the form of written or other useful material for adults to take home with them, and by summarising the content at the end of a learning session, giving what was attempted, what was accomplished, what is yet to be done and the further steps to be taken.

10. *Learning is an active process.* To learn new skills, the learner must practice them; to learn facts, he must relate them to each other and to a problem; to develop attitudes, he must change his present feelings about things and issues; to gain appreciation he must develop it. The instructor, therefore, can only create situations that are conducive to learning. He cannot "learn anyone anything." All he can do is to teach; the learner must do the learning. Hence, learning is an individual or personal matter. Consequently, there is no such thing as group learning. Learning in a group, however, can be done and is highly effective since participants not only learn from what the instructor says and does but from what others in the learning situation say and do.

11. *Learning requires effective communication.* Communication has to do with the way people get ideas. It is the process by which two or more people exchange ideas, thoughts, feelings or impressions in ways that each gains a common understanding of the meaning and intent of messages. Good communication, therefore, is the essence of good extension teaching. The basic means of communication is words. However, words are usually more effective when supported by other forms of symbols that also communicate, such as visual aids. Whatever symbols are chosen to convey ideas, they must be appropriately selected and used so that their meaning is clear to the learners; otherwise no communication will take place. (See Chapter XX.)

12. *Theory and practice must be related.* Theory and practice always have a relationship. Principles or theory relate to *why*; techniques relate to *how*. One may understand the structure of theory and be unable to apply it in practice. On the other hand, one may be able to use technique skilfully but be superficial in one's efforts because one does not understand how the technique relates to the whole of the process of extension or

to the broader aspects of the activity one has to perform. A Village Level Worker, for example, may be able to use with great skill the techniques of presenting a method demonstration without thinking through and making clear to his audience the broad theoretical aspects of the problem which the demonstration is intended to help solve. The effective extension worker is neither an abstract thinker only nor an accomplished user of tricks; he is both. He must understand the principles lying behind his technique in order to make it effective.

The importance of principles stems from the fact that they are general rules—well established truths—that usually have wide application. They serve as useful guides in a wide range of situations. Extension workers equipped with an understanding of principles applicable to their work are more likely to be creative than those who pride themselves on just being practical. Extension workers sometimes misinterpret the meaning of the term practical. They infer that to be practical, things must be simple, easy to do, primer-like, not complicated. The basic meaning of the term practical really suggests that whatever technique works well in a situation, regardless of its complexity, is practical. Principles give meaning to technique. One who glorifies technique without trying to understand the principles related to it is a captive of technique. On the other hand, one who tends to remain at the theoretical level is a captive of theory. An understanding of principles related to technique and skill with technique is the height of professional competency. The person who knows *how* and also *why* will eventually supervise the person who only knows *how*.

13. *Learning and teaching is an intentional process on the part of both the instructor and the learner.* The only aim of teaching is to promote learning that results in desired behavioural change. The only aim of learning is to gain the ability to change one's behaviour. Hence, when the intent to teach and the intent to learn are not present in a learning situation it is likely that activity will be confused with accomplishment. For every change in human behaviour there is usually some outside influence that causes the change. Organised teaching is one of these outside stimuli. Teaching must aim at specific predetermined goals that represent the kind of new behaviour desired. Teaching requires careful planning of content, procedures, methods and techniques in order to promote learning in desirable predetermined directions.

14. *Learned behaviour is attained through four primary steps.* These steps are : (a) developing interest, (b) creating desire, (c) ensuring action, and (d) maintaining satisfaction. All extension teaching should be geared essentially to developing these behaviours in individuals or in groups. Confidence is an essential aspect running through each of these behavioural changes. Teaching methods must be chosen for their particular contribution in developing each of these aspects of behavioural change. The stages do not appear as easily identifiable clear-cut patterns of behaviour. They overlap each other and produce a cumulative learning impact on participants. (See Chapter XIII.)

The foregoing represents only a selected number of general guides to teaching and learning and their implications in Extension Education. It should, however, provide for the extension teacher a starting point from which he can extend his depth and breadth of understanding of the wide range of basic aspects involved in the teaching–learning process related to rural development.

Planning Learning Experiences

The crucial point in the process of teaching and learning, regardless of its content, form or objective, is to enable learners to have an effective learning experience. This is the criterion by which all teaching and learning must be judged. An effective learning experience is one that results in a maximum of desirable change in behaviour on the part of the learners.

Meaning of Learning Experience

The term learning experience is not for use only by theorists or experts ; it is a highly meaningful label for a concept lying at the core of the educational process. By simple definition a learning experience is the mental and/or physical reaction a learner makes to seeing or hearing or doing the things to be learned, through which he gains meanings and understandings useful in solving new problems.

From this statement it can be seen that an effective learning experience involves far more than simply being physically present in a learning situation or placing oneself in a position to learn. It is what a learner does in the learning situation that is the all-important aspect of learning. Learning, therefore, takes place through the experience which the learner has, i.e., through the reactions he makes to the content which is to be

learned. Hence, it should be emphasised again that it is what the learner does, not what the instructor does, that is especially important in a learning situation. A learning experience, then, is not the same as merely attending a meeting or a class or a demonstration.

The point can be demonstrated, for example, by activities like reading a book, attending a class, listening to a speaker or observing extension work. These activities constitute experiences that offer opportunity for learning, but exposing oneself to them does not ensure that learning will actually result. These actions are usually not enough within themselves. For example, while listening to an extension specialist explain new research findings to Village Level Workers, two participants may have very different learning experiences, even though they have equal need for the material and equal opportunity to learn. Worker A gives undivided attention to the new facts as the specialist presents them. With deep thought he attempts to understand the relationship of new facts to each other, to those he already knew about the subject, and to the problems back in his village area. He asks questions to clarify points not clear to him. As a consequence of this kind of mental action, this worker understands the new ideas and feels that he can help cultivators in his area apply them. He has high praise for both the content and method used by the specialist and wants to find out even more about the subject. In short, worker A clearly has an effective learning experience. In contrast, worker B participates quite differently and, consequently, has a very different reaction to the specialist's presentation. Worker B allows his thoughts to range widely over many subjects, giving the speaker only a fleeting and often interrupted attention. Because of this, worker B learns very few of the new facts presented and does not recognise their basic significance. He learns a little or nothing.

A major problem then, in changing a programme into action to attain a set of objectives, is that of deciding on the particular kinds of learning experiences that are most likely to help the learner attain the objectives specified for the teaching. The means of education in all fields are seen as the educational experiences had by the learner.

Making Learning Experiences Effective

There are several guides useful in making learning experiences effective regardless of the methods employed by an extension

teacher. These guides are not mere opinions but are well established principles based on research findings and extensive experience. It is important, therefore, that these are considered by all extension teachers in their efforts to set up learning experiences.

1. *Learners must have experiences that give them an opportunity to practise the kinds of behaviour implied by the objective.* When an objective implies either mental or manual skills, opportunity must be provided for learners to practise the skills, since practice is the only way yet discovered for effectively developing skills. For example, the specialists can teach a trainee how to select, heat, and use the anvil and hammer in properly shaping a piece of metal into a plough share, but only through continued practice will the trainee become a skilled blacksmith. Once the patterns to be followed have been identified and learned, the task is to develop the skill through practice. If an objective calls for problem-solving, which involves a mental skill, opportunity to practise problem-solving must be provided.
2. *Learning experiences implied by an objective must be satisfying to the learner when he carries them out.* It is not only important that a family be given the opportunity to solve a nutrition problem by learning to eat additional green vegetables, but the family must find it satisfying to eat the additional green or leafy vegetables. If they once try the practice and find the experience unsatisfying or distasteful, the desired learning is not likely to take place, i.e., the practice is not likely to be continued.
3. *The reactions desired in the learning experience should be within the range of ability, both mental and physical, of the learner.* This is to say, as did the old adage, "the teacher must begin where the learner is." There must be time to take action ; there must be opportunity for action ; there must be financial means and necessary materials available. If the learning experience involves the kind of action which the person is not yet able to make, then it fails in its purpose. To avoid these pitfalls requires the extension teacher to know much about his learners and their economic, social and physical situation.
4. *There are many particular learning experiences that can*

be used to attain the same educational objective. Probably there is an uncertain number of experiences that could be used to attain a good objective. This is one of the most fortunate aspects of the educational process. It makes flexibility and the use of different means under different circumstances to attain an objective possible. As long as the experiences meet the various criteria for effective learning, they are likely to be useful in attaining a desired objective. This does not imply in any sense that teaching can be haphazard. Rather, it implies that teaching, at its best, is a 'tailor-making' operation within the range of certain basic principles and procedures common to all effective teaching.

5. *A single learning experience will usually contribute to the attainment of more than one objective.* This fact also is fortunate for those who attempt to promote learning. For example, when one is solving certain problems about health, he is gaining certain information in the health field. He may also be acquiring greater interest in health measures.
6. *Learning experiences must be such that the extension worker can provide them effectively.* This is an obvious fact. If an instructor is unable to master his method or technology or teaching equipment, he is professionally incompetent to provide an effective learning experience. If, for example, he handles clumsily a slide projector, he not only loses much of the confidence of his audience but also wastes their time and his own. If he attempts to use the discussion method and is not successful as a discussion leader, he is not likely to provide for his learners an effective learning experience.

From a study of these principles or criteria and the definition of learning experiences already given, it is obvious that the process of selecting learning experiences and providing them properly is not a mechanical, but a highly professional and creative process. It is largely one of making judgements based on adequate knowledge of learners, the content to be communicated and the basic aspects of the educational process.

Action Steps

There are several action steps that should be taken by an instructor in setting up conditions in which learners may have

effective learning experiences. The following are some of these.

1. Carefully analysing the objectives and listing a series of possible learning experiences that are thought to be useful for attaining each objective. This includes two activities:
   (a) Deciding on the types of instructional material and its content. This may include a bulletin dealing with the subject, or a set of coloured slides that illustrate points to be made, or a set of wall charts showing important data, or a diagram illustrating significant points related to the objective. The list can be made extensive when the objective is carefully analysed.
   (b) Deciding on the kind of activity to be assigned to and carried on by the learner. This may include activities such as reading a part or all of a book or bulletin related to the subject, or listening to students giving their experience with various problems, or participating in a demonstration of recommended practices, or selecting certain people to conduct a demonstration, or listening to successful farmers tell what they did and the results obtained with respect to the subject under consideration. Again, this list can be made extensive when one examines the objective carefully and attempts to identify the kind of action on the part of learners that is most likely to provide an effective learning experience for them.
2. Making a careful check on the tentative draft of learning experience against the desired objective to determine whether the proposed experience meets the following criteria satisfactorily.
   (a) Does the proposed experience give the learner an opportunity to practise the kind of behaviour implied by the objective?
   (b) Do the experiences sample or relate to the content implied by the objective?
   (c) Is the degree of complexity of the experience in line with the learners' ability and readiness to act?
   (d) Will the experiences be satisfying to the learners? Will the experiences be interesting and likely to result in values recognised by the learners?

The foregoing may properly be viewed as a rational or a

framework within which an extension teacher should think and plan to meet the problem of selecting and setting up learning experiences that offer good chances of effectively attaining the teaching objectives.

Setting Up Learning Situations

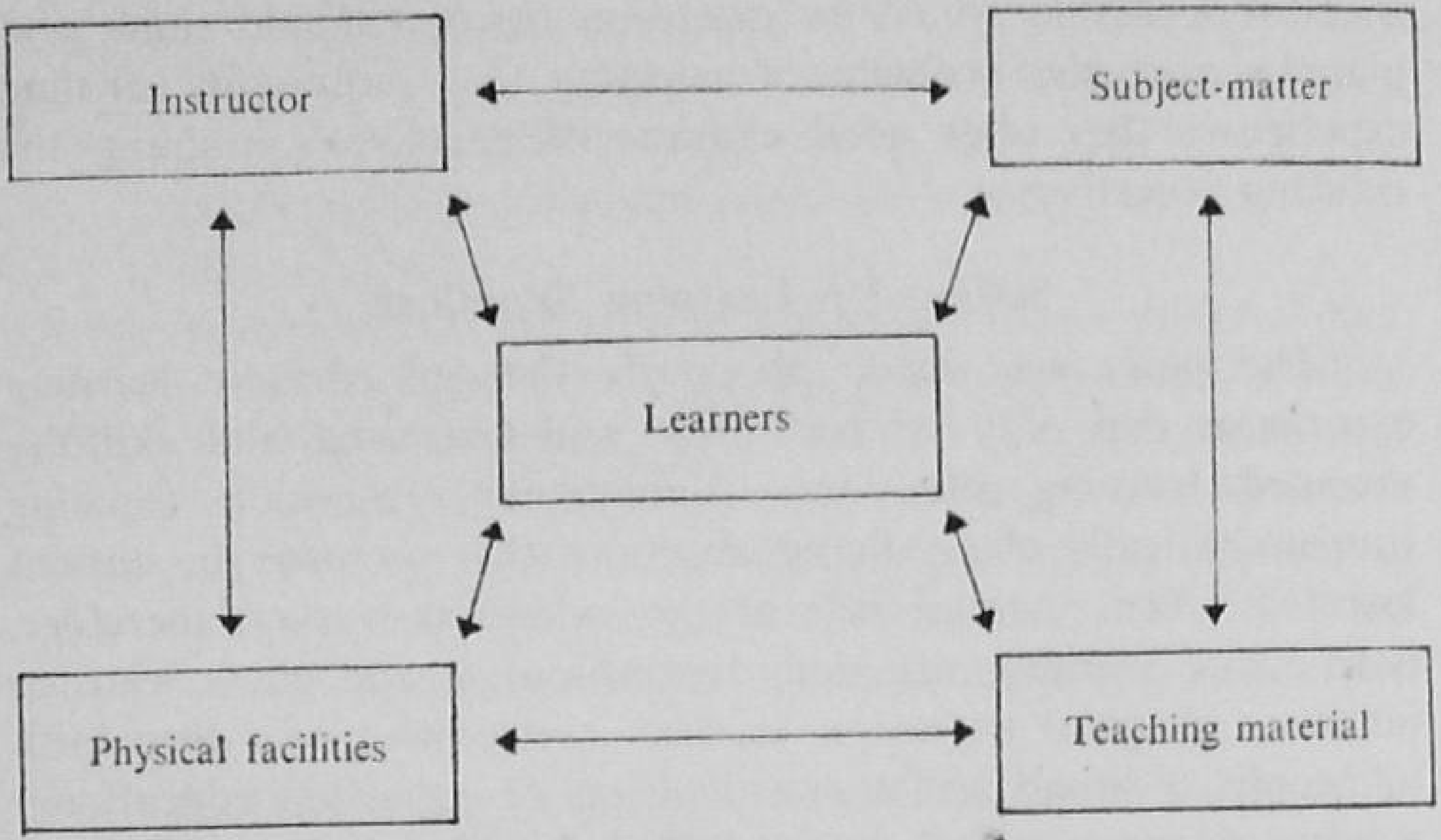
The point was made previously that an effective learning experience can only be had in a well-structured and skilfully executed learning situation. Consequently, extension teaching consists basically of arranging situations that promote the desired learning. The essential role of the extension worker, therefore, is to create learning situations that stimulate and guide learning activity. A good extension teacher is one who has deep faith in people, a broad and forward vision of extension educational process, a thorough and current knowledge of useful technology, a willingness to serve people beyond the minimum requirements and one who is effective in bringing together people, technology and teaching methods with optimum effect in promoting rural development. In short, the effective extension worker is one who can create and manage learning situations in which learners have effective learning experiences.

After the learning experiences to be provided have been decided upon by an instructor, the problem then is to arrange a learning situation which will provide opportunity and stimulation that cause the desired mental and physical action on the part of the learners. This is the instructor's function. He must decide on the methods for doing it. The task is a highly professional one that calls for deep insight into the extension educational process and great skill in the teaching art. At this point the total range of extension methods enter the picture. Teaching methods must be wisely selected, properly combined and skilfully executed in order to convey the subject-matter to learners in a way that they really learn.

An effective learning situation consists of five essential elements :

1. An effective instructor or leader
2. Learners who want and need to learn
3. Content or subject-matter that is useful to learners
4. Appropriate instructional equipment and materials
5. An appropriate physical envirnoment.

The role of the extension teacher is to so conduct himself and to manipulate the last four elements that the learners have an effective learning experience.



The diagram shows learners as the central element in the learning situation. This is significant, as it should be, since the entire purpose is to cause them to learn. Learning on the part of students, therefore, becomes the objective, or end to be attained, while the other four elements become the means for achieving this end product.

There is always a constant reaction by learners to each of the other four major elements in the learning situation. For example, a learner may at one time be reacting to the clothing of the instructor, to his mannerisms, or to his voice ; at another time to his teaching equipment, or the manner in which he handles it ; later to some aspect of the physical facilities such as the hard chair, or poor light, or excessive heat ; and may also at some time to the subject-matter to be learned. In addition to the mental focus on these elements and many others not mentioned, learners also react to such items as outside noise, individual bias, members of the group, personal problems and teaching procedures. The great task of the extension instructor is to so minimise the almost infinite number of possible distractions to the mental process in learning that the maximum time and effort is spent by the learners in reacting to the subject-matter to be learned. The effectiveness of a learning experience is, therefore, related directly to the manner and extent of mental concentration on that which is to be learned—the subject-matter.

There are a number of things an instructor can do that help assure a good learning situation. Some of the important ones are given below.

1. Have teaching objectives clearly in mind that are significant to the learners, that are attainable through the educational process within the mental, economic, physical and time limitations of the learners, and make these clear to them.
2. Have a thorough knowledge of significant subject-matter related to the learners' needs.
3. Be personable, enthusiastic, and interested in the subject-matter and the welfare of the learners.
4. Be able to communicate effectively with the learners.
5. Use democratic instructional methods and approaches.
6. Encourage learners' participation in the learning situation. (This requires more than mere physical presence.)
7. Be prepared, prompt, and courteous in every teaching–learning session.
8. Set a good example of educational leadership and effective teaching.
9. Arrange and manage the learning situation so as to prevent or minimise distractions within and outside the learning situation. (These include heat, light, location, space, furniture arrangement, and teaching and reading materials, etc.)
10. Have suitable teaching equipment and supplies readily available for easy use with a minimum of distraction of the learners' attention from the subject.
11. Be skilful in the use of every item of teaching material and equipment—chalk-board, visual equipment, reading materials, etc.
12. Always prepare and use a carefully developed teaching plan.

The foregoing are only a small number of the numerous important considerations that enable an instructor to create and manage learning situations that provide effective learning experiences for the participants. Indeed, this task calls for the total professional resources of the extension educator. To become a proficient extension instructor, one must constantly work at the tasks of analysing his teaching problems, knowing his audience, gaining new technology to extend, gaining further understanding of the teaching–learning process, and developing greater skill in selecting, combining and using the methods of Extension Education.

Selected References

Audio-visual Handbook for India. The Audio-visual Aids Committee, National Christian Council of India, The Diocean Press, Madras, 1955.

Audio-visual Methods in Teaching. Edgar Dale, Dryden Press, New York. 1954 (Revised).

Communication of Ideas. Lymon Bryson, Harper and Brothers, New York, 1957.

Cooperative Extension Work. L. D. Kelsey and C. C. Hearne, Comstock Publishing Associates, Ithaca, New York, 1949.

Extension Teaching Methods. M. C. Wilson and Gladys Gallup, Extension Service Circular 495, Federal Extension Service, USDA, Washington D.C., 1955.

Fundamentals of Educational Leadership. Weber and Weber, McGraw-Hill Book Co. Inc., New York, 1959.

Guide to Community Development. Ministry of Community Development and Cooperation, Government of India, New Delhi, 1957.

How to Talk Well. Irving J. Lee. Harper and Brothers, New York, 1952.

Human Problems in Technological Change. Edited by Edward H. Spicer, Russell Sage Foundation, New York, 1952.

India's Changing Villages. S. C. Dube Routledge and Kegan Paul Ltd., London, 1958.

Informal Adult Education. Malcolm S. Knowles, Association Press, New York, 1950.

Methods of Agricultural Extension. International Agricultural Study Centre, Wageningen, The Netherlands, 1953.

Nature and Conditions of Learning. H. E. Kingley, Prentice Hall, Boston, 1947.

Psychology in Teaching. H. P. Smith, Prentice Hall Inc., New York, 1954.

Successful Teaching—Its Psychological Principles. James L. Mursell, McGraw-Hill Book Co. Inc., New York, 1955.

Teaching Agriculture. Carsie Hammonds, McGraw-Hill Book Co. Inc., New York, 1950.

CHAPTER XII

EXTENSION TEACHING METHODS

J. Paul Leagans

To help people help themselves is the theme lying at the core of India's National Extension Service—Community Projects programme. This is the criterion that founders and current leaders of the movement suggest against which its success must be judged. Helping people learn to help themselves requires education. Education requires learning. Learning requires teaching to make it effective. Teaching requires special aptitudes on the part of teachers. For community development workers, these skills include knowledge of technology or what to teach, an understanding of the educational process or how to teach, skill with extension teaching methods, and ability to work with village people.

Throughout recorded history, one of man's greatest concerns has been the elusive question of how to influence his fellow men to act differently. The great task of Extension Education for Community Development is to exert a desirable controlling influence over others through the use of the power of education. The essential function, then, of the extension worker or lay leader in his effort to promote learning among others is to create situations that (1) provide people with an opportunity to learn, and (2) stimulate the mental and physical activity that produces the desired learning.

This task is accomplished through the skilful use of extension teaching methods and application of the sound principles of teaching and learning.

Extension Education for Community Development is dedicated to helping people put knowledge to work for them. This is a complex process. Good extension teaching is not a mere dispensing of facts and recipes, or a simple mechanical

manipulation of extension methods. It helps people in gaining new knowledge and in seeing the connection of the new knowledge with the problems as they view them. It helps people in gaining skills necessary for applying the new knowledge and attaining satisfaction in doing so.

Knowledge alone is usually not enough to stimulate the desired action. For it is not merely what a person knows, but what he comes to believe that determines what he does when he is free to act as he chooses. Teaching facts and practical subject-matter is a relatively easy task. Getting people to understand, accept and apply them is the difficult task. At this point, extension teaching presents its greatest challenge and the true art of extension work emerges. It is here that the good extension worker is separated from the less good ones. Fortunately, teaching ability can be learned.

In this Chapter is set forth some basic guides to extension teaching. Extension Education is of such scope and complexity that one has to study and have experience far beyond the material presented here. But some lines are laid out that point towards useful directions.

Extension Teachers and Teaching

Emphasis on the extension educational aspect of Community Development stems from the belief that education helps people learn how to do things for themselves and that service consists of doing things for people. Education makes people more self-reliant ; service makes them more dependent on someone else. Education consists of more than imparting information to people or supplying answers to people's questions. Education must help people develop the ability of understanding and reasoning which enables them to think through problems and to arrive at solutions on their own.

Consequently, as Eaton points out in his book on *College Teaching*, "What the teacher desires, believes and thinks, teaches no one. He can accomplish his ends only by putting before his learners what they can hear, what they can see, what they can feel, what they can understand, what they can move, what they can do ; and in no other fashion. Hence, ultimately, the resources of the teacher must be found in what he can do to create the situations in which these actions can take place in relation to the content to be learned. He must speak or write words and signs, draw diagrams and pictures, place before learners

pictures, charts, models, specimens, implements, machines, and other material things, move things, make gestures—in short, act to bring learners into contact with stimuli selected and ordered according to his purposes." The role of the extension teacher, therefore, is not to impose his notions on others, but rather to create situations in which others develop educationally. There are, as most people have learned, countless ways to be wrong, few ways to be right. The role of the extension worker is to gain such competency that he can single out the right ways and present them as hypotheses for others, thus saving them the pain of having to examine personally all the wrong ways. The fact that many wrong ways are presented by those who pretend to be extension teachers does not modify their role as teachers; it only disqualifies their pretensions.

Can one learn how to teach? This question is often asked by people interested in Extension Education. The answer is definitely yes. The ability of individuals engaged in teaching varies, but so it does among those engaged in other professions. There are no born teachers, as is sometimes asserted, any more than there are born lawyers, or doctors, or engineers, or farmers, or carpenters. Everyone is gifted by nature. Those gifts vary as we all know. But anyone with good intelligence and the will to study, practise, plan and revise ways of doing the teaching job can gain the needed skill to do effective teaching. Hence, there is no mystery about learning how to be a good teacher. It is simply a matter of hard work, study, concentration and the will to achieve proficiency. This is the price one must pay for acquiring real skill in any profession.

Some Definitions

To understand the extension teaching process, one needs first to understand the meaning of the key terms used in connection with the work of teaching. The following definitions are over-simplified, but may be used as working definitions.

Extension Education: Extension Education is an applied science consisting of content derived from research, accumulated field experiences and relevant principles drawn from the behavioural sciences synthesised with useful technology into a body of philosophy, principles, content and methods focussed on the problems of out-of-school education for adults and youth.

Learning: Learning is the process by which an individual, through his own activity, changes his behaviour.

Teaching: Teaching is the process of arranging situations that stimulate and guide the learning activity towards the goals that specify desired changes in the behaviour of people. Teaching consists of providing situations in which the important things to be learned are called to the attention of the learners, their interest developed, desire aroused, and action promoted.

Teaching Methods: Teaching methods are the devices used to create situations in which communication can take place between the instructor and the learner.

Learning Situation: A learning situation is one in which all the elements necessary for promoting learning are present, namely, (1) instructor, (2) learner, (3) subject-matter, (4) teaching materials and equipment, and (5) physical facilities.

Learning Experience: A learning experience is the mental and/or physical reaction one makes through seeing, hearing, or doing the things to be learned, through which one gains meanings and understandings of the material to be learned.

Basic Assumptions

The nature and role of extension teaching for Community Development described in this Chapter rests on a number of assumptions. The following are some of them.

1. The gap is too wide between the content of the Community Development Programme and what villagers know and do about it. This gap must be narrowed for the spark of progress to transcend it and ignite the fuel of human aspiration, initiative and skill that alone can propel villagers to a higher level of living. To narrow the gap requires Extension Education—the accepted means of attaining the objectives of Community Development.
2. The Indian villager must ultimately make the changes that lead to his economic and social improvement. Government personnel and facilities can only serve as a means of helping him take the necessary action.
3. More progress has been made in producing knowledge than in producing and using ways to carry knowledge

effectively to the people and getting them to understand, accept and apply it.

4. Teaching in the training centres should be done less by the dictation method—read a line, copy a line. It should emphasise memory work less and thinking work more. It should be less descriptive and more analytical. It should be less order-giving and more education-giving.
5. The only aim of extension teaching is to promote learning on the part of villagers; hence, effective learning is dependent upon effective teaching.
6. Good extension teaching is the skilful creation of opportunities or situations in which people gain the abilities and the stimulation necessary to successfully meet their needs in ways that give continuous self-satisfaction.
7. Effective extension teaching is an intentional process carefully designed to attain specific predetermined objectives.
8. For every change in human behaviour, there are usually some internal or external stimuli that motivate the change. The job of teaching is to identify, create, apply and control the right stimuli in line with the desired objectives.
9. It is not what a person merely knows, but what he comes to believe, that determines what he does and how he does it, when he is free to act as he chooses.
10. Learning is an active process on the part of the learner; hence, it is what the learner does that he learns, not what the instructor does. An instructor can only provide the condition for learning.
11. The function of extension workers is to attain certain significant and appropriate learning outcomes on the part of village people that help them help themselves to a more satisfying life.

Guides to Effective Extension Teaching

The only aim of extension is to promote learning that results in desirable behavioural changes in people. For every change in human behaviour there is usually some outside influence that causes the change. Organised extension teaching is one of these outside stimuli. To apply them effectively requires design, not drift; it requires a plan, not trial and error. Good

teaching, therefore, results from carefully planned content, procedures and techniques. Designing good teaching plans is a highly professional job, and one that when well done pays off handsomely in achievement.

A number of conditions must be met and actions taken to make extension teaching and methods effective. Some major conditions necessary for success are listed below along with a brief description of each.

1. *Extension teaching requires specific and clearly defined teaching objectives.* A teaching objective is simply the term used to describe the end product desired or the condition one is trying to achieve through extension teaching. All purposeful teaching can be seen as having specific objectives. These are derived from the broader programme objectives. An important question is whether teaching objectives are significant, clearly conceived and specifically defined in terms of the behavioural change expected and the content with which the change is intended to relate. Hence, before extension teaching can attain maximum effectiveness, the kind of specific changes desired in the behaviour of people must be identified.

When teaching objectives are stated properly, they contain four different aspects, namely, (1) people to be taught, (2) behavioural changes to be developed in people, (3) content or subject-matter to which the behaviour is related, and (4) life situation in which the action is to take place. For example, one teaching objective may be to develop the skill (behaviour) of V.L.Ws (persons) in conducting method demonstrations (content) before groups of village people (life situation). Another may be to develop the knowledge (behaviour) of farmers (people) about profit from planting good crop seed (content) through result demonstrations (life situation). Still another may be to develop interest (behaviour) among village families (people) in village sanitation (content) through village meetings (life situation).

It can be seen from these examples that well stated teaching objectives are specific in the kind of changed behaviour desired, the people who are to make the change, the content to be dealt with, and the life situation in which teaching and learning are to take place. The examples also show that the elements are different in each objective. It is only when the degree of specificity as shown by the examples is present that objectives are discriminating in their objects. Teaching objectives stated in this manner give direction and guidance to both teachers and

learners. They help eliminate mystery and provide clarity in extension teaching.

It is true that one may accomplish some favourable results without a clear definition or concept of the objectives one is trying to attain. But if improvements result from the total programme, workers must have clear and well defined teaching objectives. A clear concept of teaching objectives is also fundamental to intelligent selection of content and methods necessary for creating learning situations that contribute effectively to the ends desired. In a like manner, effective organisation of teaching and evidence of its outcome are dependent on clearly recognised and definite objectives. Achievements in extension teaching can be adequate only in terms of some standard. That standard can only be derived from one's concept of the objectives.

Good extension teaching, then, starts with and continues toward specific, clearly conceived and significant teaching objectives. To be useful in guiding the teaching activity, they must meet the following general criteria :

(a) Be within the limitations imposed by laws, resources, policies and other external forces limiting the nature and role of the Community Development Programme.

(b) Be significant to a relatively large number of potential participants in the teaching activity.

(c) Be attainable :
  (1) through the educational process,
  (2) within the time limitations of extension workers and participants in the programme,
  (3) within the physical resources of participants,
  (4) within the mental, economic and social possibilities of participants.

(d) Specify the kind of behavioural change to be attained in learners and the subject-matter content with which the behaviour is to deal.

2. *Extension teaching must accomplish certain kinds of educational changes in relation to the subject-matter to be learned.* Among these are :

(a) *Changes in knowledge*, or things known, amount of knowledge, kinds of knowledge. Example : varieties of seed to sow, kinds and amount of fertiliser to use, health value of compost pits, etc.

(b) *Changes in skills*, or ability to do things. How easily

and effectively one can do specified tasks, the number of things one can do, the complexity of the things one can do, are all reflections of skill. Skills may be divided into two groups :

(i) *Mental skills.* These are evidenced, for example, by the ability of a person to work out solutions to problems he could not solve before, or to approach new problems effectively.

(ii) *Manual or physical skills.* These are shown by a person's ability, for example, to use tools properly or to adjust various kinds of equipment, etc.

(c) *Changes in attitude,* or feelings for or against things and issues. In addition to knowledge and skill, people have tendencies toward certain behaviours—points of view, beliefs, reactions and the like—that tend to be for or against items or issues confronting them in daily life. For example, a villager's attitude toward the use of an improved plough or improved seed. Attitudes are important forces in determining what a person does and how he does it. Attitudes tend to be either positive or negative—for or against—in varying degrees of intensity or strength. They must become strongly positive before desired changes in behaviour will take place.

Although the above are basic ways in which people can be changed educationally, there are additional kinds of changes that should be considered by extension workers. Two primary ones are :

(a) *Changes in interest :* Interest is an expression of attitude. But behaviour called interest is more specific in the object toward which the feeling is expressed than is usually true when the term attitude is used. Hence, attitudes tend to be general ; interests tend to be specific in relation to their objects. Educational interests may usefully be defined as a desire to learn, or to gain more information, or to understand, or to gain skill pertaining to some object in a person's environment that he believes will give him satisfaction if the interest is met.

(b) *Changes in understanding :* Understanding has to do with gaining insight into the relationship of facts and issues, usually involving cause and effect. It has to do with the development of a deeper and broader vision of how various elements, important facts, and principles operate

in different situations. To gain understanding requires knowledge and thinking skill on the part of learners.

3. *Extension teaching requires learning situations that include five major elements.* The five elements necessary to constitute an effective learning situation and some important points about each are as follows.

(1) *Leader or Instructor*

He should :

(a) have a clear objective,
(b) know the subject-matter—have it well organised,
(c) be personable, enthusiastic and interested in the subject,
(d) be able to communicate with learners,
(e) be democratic in his leadership,
(f) encourage learner participation—ask for it,
(g) be prepared, prompt, friendly, and courteous,
(h) use a good teaching plan,
(i) speak so all can hear,
(j) set a good example of leadership and teaching,
(k) be skilful in the use of teaching materials and equipment.

(2) *Learners*

They should :

(a) be capable of learning,
(b) interested in the subject,
(c) have need for the information offered,
(d) be able to use the information once it is gained.

(3) *Subject-matter or Content*

It should :

(a) be pertinent to learners' needs,
(b) be applicable to real-life situations,
(c) be taught at the intellectual level of the learners,
(d) be presented clearly,
(e) be well organised, logically presented,
(f) fit into overall objectives,
(g) be challenging, satisfying and significant to the learners.

(4) *Physical Situation*

It should :

(a) be free from outside distraction,
(b) have temperature neither too hot nor too cold,
(c) be well lighted,

and effectively one can do specified tasks, the number of things one can do, the complexity of the things one can do, are all reflections of skill. Skills may be divided into two groups :

(i) *Mental skills.* These are evidenced, for example, by the ability of a person to work out solutions to problems he could not solve before, or to approach new problems effectively.

(ii) *Manual or physical skills.* These are shown by a person's ability, for example, to use tools properly or to adjust various kinds of equipment, etc.

(c) *Changes in attitude,* or feelings for or against things and issues. In addition to knowledge and skill, people have tendencies toward certain behaviours—points of view, beliefs, reactions and the like—that tend to be for or against items or issues confronting them in daily life. For example, a villager's attitude toward the use of an improved plough or improved seed. Attitudes are important forces in determining what a person does and how he does it. Attitudes tend to be either positive or negative—for or against—in varying degrees of intensity or strength. They must become strongly positive before desired changes in behaviour will take place.

Although the above are basic ways in which people can be changed educationally, there are additional kinds of changes that should be considered by extension workers. Two primary ones are :

(a) *Changes in interest :* Interest is an expression of attitude. But behaviour called interest is more specific in the object toward which the feeling is expressed than is usually true when the term attitude is used. Hence, attitudes tend to be general ; interests tend to be specific in relation to their objects. Educational interests may usefully be defined as a desire to learn, or to gain more information, or to understand, or to gain skill pertaining to some object in a person's environment that he believes will give him satisfaction if the interest is met.

(b) *Changes in understanding :* Understanding has to do with gaining insight into the relationship of facts and issues, usually involving cause and effect. It has to do with the development of a deeper and broader vision of how various elements, important facts, and principles operate

in different situations. To gain understanding requires knowledge and thinking skill on the part of learners.

3. *Extension teaching requires learning situations that include five major elements.* The five elements necessary to constitute an effective learning situation and some important points about each are as follows.

(1) *Leader or Instructor*

He should :

(a) have a clear objective,
(b) know the subject-matter—have it well organised,
(c) be personable, enthusiastic and interested in the subject,
(d) be able to communicate with learners,
(e) be democratic in his leadership,
(f) encourage learner participation—ask for it,
(g) be prepared, prompt, friendly, and courteous,
(h) use a good teaching plan,
(i) speak so all can hear,
(j) set a good example of leadership and teaching,
(k) be skilful in the use of teaching materials and equipment.

(2) *Learners*

They should :

(a) be capable of learning,
(b) interested in the subject,
(c) have need for the information offered,
(d) be able to use the information once it is gained.

(3) *Subject-matter or Content*

It should :

(a) be pertinent to learners' needs,
(b) be applicable to real-life situations,
(c) be taught at the intellectual level of the learners,
(d) be presented clearly,
(e) be well organised, logically presented,
(f) fit into overall objectives,
(g) be challenging, satisfying and significant to the learners.

(4) *Physical Situation*

It should :

(a) be free from outside distraction,
(b) have temperature neither too hot nor too cold,
(c) be well lighted,

(d) have adequate space for group,
(e) be well located.

(5) *Instructional Equipment and Supplies*
They should :
(a) be suitable to the subject being presented and the physical situation,
(b) be adequate, and available at hand,
(c) be skilfully used.

The nature of each of these elements, their relationship to each other, and their role in the educational process must be thoroughly understood by the instructor. He should develop skill in handling them. Effective learning situations are created through the skilful use of extension teaching methods.

4. *Extension teaching requires that learners have effective learning experiences.* A learning experience is the mental and/ or physical reaction one makes through seeing, hearing, or doing the things to be learned through which one gains meanings and understandings of the content. Learning, therefore, is an active process on the part of the learners. Hence, a learning experience is not attained by simply being physically present in a learning situation. It is what the participant does while in the learning situation that is all-important in learning. He must give undivided attention to the instructor and deep thought to getting the facts, understanding their meaning, and to seeing their application to his needs and problems. Effective learning experiences, then, can best be had in effective learning situations provided by a skilful instructor who knows what he wants, who has the materials to accomplish his goals and the skills to use them effectively.

5. *Extension teaching usually requires a combination of teaching methods.* No one extension method will reach all people nor will influence all whom it does reach. Thus, extension teaching methods must be considered from the standpoint of effective combination. By and large, rural people are influenced to make changes on their farm, in their home and in their community in relation to the number of different times they are exposed to information through personal visits, meetings, demonstrations and the like. The conclusion is obvious. If wider response is desired, rural people must be exposed to suggestions for improvement in several different ways and over a period of time. Extension teaching, therefore, must build among people a background of ideas and suggestions of fact.

This requires more than simply telling people what they should do. To get an idea well established in the mind of people, to develop their vision of the need for change and to create a desire among them to make useful changes calls for a continuous and high type of extension teaching using a variety of methods.

6. *Extension teaching requires careful evaluation of results.* The importance of evaluation lies in the fact that it is useful in guiding educational programmes and teaching effort. Problems of an educational nature are usually so complex and their outcome so difficult to observe that one cannot tell what the true outcome is by simple observation. Means must be employed, therefore, that are more precise than casual observation, and more reliable than opinion and judgement, to determine the true outcome of educational activity. The following are some specific reasons for evaluating extension teaching.

(a) When a programme or teaching activity is set up and carried out, with no matter how much care, one can predict with only a certain degree of accuracy the likelihood of its producing the effect desired. This is true because of the large number of variables involved which cannot be controlled, such as:

(1) Nature and level of difficulty of subject-matter.
(2) Variations among participants.
(3) Environmental conditions in which teaching is done.
(4) Skill of instructors in setting conditions for learning.
(5) Personality characteristics of instructors.

These variables along with many others make it virtually impossible to guarantee that a teaching effort will attain the desired outcome in every group of learners or with all parts of a programme. It becomes important, therefore, to make more inclusive checks to determine the accuracy of one's predictions, or the true effectiveness of the programme and teaching activity.

(b) Educational progress requires change in specific directions. It is necessary, therefore, to look and see what kind and how much of change results from teaching activity, and whether it is toward the desired objective. Progress requires change, but all change is not necessarily progress.

(c) Regardless of how well planned or executed a programme is, all aspects of it will not usually go over to learners equally well. So one has to look and see which parts

need more emphasis and why certain parts were not effective.

(d) Both instructors and trainees want and need the psychological satisfaction that comes from knowing how they are doing. So one needs to see about this.

(e) Good public relations and justification for continued support of public programmes requires objective evidence beyond that of opinions and subjective judgements.

(f) The effectiveness of educational programmes and teaching can be improved only by finding their strong and weak points, then taking action to strengthen the weakness. Evaluation is the best means yet discovered for identifying these conditions.

(g) Every successful institution requires for its continuous development the existence of units for objectively measuring progress, procedures, methods and its ultimate successes. These are also necessary for promoting creative thought and for collecting information to guide its staff.

Extension workers can no more afford to neglect judging accurately whether they are getting there where they want to go, than can the navigator, the physician, the architect, or any other person who sets out on a course of action to achieve some foreseen end.

Characteristics of Extension Teaching Methods

Before rural people can or will respond to a programme, they must know about its objectives, understand its contents and gain skill in adopting the changes recommended. For this to take place, effective contact is necessary between people who need to make changes and professional extension workers who can guide them in doing so. Extension methods are to the Block staff and Village Level Workers what machines, wrenches and hammers are to the mechanic. Availability of appropriate methods and skill in their selection and use is crucial to successful Extension Education.

A wide range of extension teaching methods and techniques are in common use in India and other countries for promoting rural development by means of education. They are usefully described in a number of current publications. Included here for the convenience of readers is material recently prepared by three experienced extension workers in Mysore State, India, R.

Dwarakinath, J. Srinivasamurthy and P. Hanumappa, published in *Agricultural Extension Methods and Community Development in India,* Information Booklet No. 6 of the Department of Agriculture in Mysore.

Extension Methods

The extension worker can employ a variety of teaching methods suited to the situation. They are enumerated below:

1. Farm and home visits.
2. General meetings.
3. Group contacts.
4. Method demonstrations.
5. Result demonstrations.
6. Campaigns.
7. Voluntary and local leadership.
8. Exhibits and models.
9. Tours and excursions.
10. Literature—leaflets, folders, circular letters and newspapers.
11. Farmers' calls.
12. Radio programmes.

1. Farm and Home Visits

What is it?

It is a direct contact by the extension worker with the farmer or the members of his family at his home or on his farm for a specific purpose.

Why is it?

This is used:

1. To get acquainted with and gain confidence of the farmer and to give a courtesy call.
2. To discuss individual or village problems.
3. To find out problems of which he is not aware.
4. To teach skills.
5. To obtain or give information.

What to do:

The following points are to be considered while employing this method:

1. It should be made with a definite purpose.
2. Punctuality and consideration for the time of the farmer should always be borne in mind.
3. A schedule of visits should be worked out to save time.

4. Remote and unfrequented farms and homes should always be kept in view.
5. This method should be used to reinforce other methods or when other methods cannot be used.

During such a visit, the following points are to be kept in mind :

(a) Develop conversation on topics of interest.
(b) Let the farmer do most of the talking and do not interrupt him.
(c) Speak only when he is willing to hear.
(d) Talk in terms of his interest.
(e) Use natural and easy language, speak slowly and cheerfully.
(f) Be accurate in your statement.
(g) Don't prolong arguments.
(h) Let the farmer take the credit for good ideas.
(i) Be sincere in learning as well as teaching.
(j) Leave the farm or home as a friend.
(k) Record the date of the visit, purpose, accomplishments and commitments.
(l) Take, if possible, a news letter, a folder or a packet of seeds, etc., to be handed over to the farmer or the members of his family. This will help in developing friendship.

Contact the man preferably when he is on the job. For example, discuss the improved plough when the man is ploughing.

For what jobs :

This method could be used :

1. To teach skills—individualised teaching.
2. To create the desire to adopt improved practices.
3. To help rural people analyse their problems and prepare them for intelligent action.

Some of the jobs that could be worked out by employing this method are :

(a) Home : Cattle stall improvement, hand flush latrine, soak pits, backyard gardening, composting, grain storage, house improvement, smokeless ovens, child care, spare time occupations, vegetable preservation, food preparations, etc.
(b) Farm : Soil conservation, potentialities of irrigation, improving drainage, soil-testing, introduction of new

crops and implements, green manuring, adoption of improved practices, etc.

Advantages :

1. First-hand knowledge of rural problems is gained.
2. Goodwill is developed.
3. The worker develops confidence when his recommendations are adopted more and more.
4. Better leaders are located.
5. The interest of the people in the government services is stimulated.
6. The barrier between the tiller and the administrator gets lessened.
7. Members not reached by other methods are contacted.
8. Percentage of adoption (takes) to advocations (exposures) rendered is high.
9. Material for news stories is provided.

Limitations :

1. Number of contacts possible is limited.
2. Contacts suited to the farmer and the extension worker are limited.
3. Concentrated visits to the responsive or progressive farmers might prejudice other farmers against the extension worker.
4. Comparatively a costly method.

2. General Meetings

What is it ?

It is broadly a meeting of heterogeneous participants wherein certain information is passed on for consideration and future action.

Why is it ?

This is employed :

1. To effectively reach and serve large numbers.
2. To prepare the people for other methods of extension work.
3. To find the reaction of the people to certain activities.

What to do :

A meeting needs planning as well as preparation. This could be done by adopting the following steps :

1. Discuss the purpose with the supervisory personnel before employing this method.

2. Consult local leaders and draw up a tentative programme.
3. Secure speakers for the meeting.
4. Arrange social and recreational features.
5. Advertise meeting in advance.
6. Ensure participation of all sections.

While conducting the meeting, the following points are to be borne in mind :

(a) Conduct the meeting, preferably in a central place with good seating arrangements, lighting and ventilation.
(b) Choose the meeting date during seasons of light farm work.
(c) Hold meetings in day-time as far as possible where homesteads are scattered.
(d) Be prompt in starting and closing the meeting.
(e) Focus attention on the purpose of the day's meeting, though giving allowance for liberal discussions. Avoid sharp conflicts.
(f) Use of illustrative material, if available, is commended.
(g) Take advantage of group psychology and employ appeals to arouse interest and stimulate action.
(h) Give recognition to all sections and groups participating.
(i) Associate local leaders at least for welcoming the gathering or thanking the participants, if not for presiding.
(j) Acknowledge services briefly.
(k) Indicate the follow-up work proposed, if any.
(l) Prepare news stories of the meeting and publicise.
(m) If possible, arrange for exhibitions and film shows.
(n) Hand out relevant folders or pamphlets at the time of break off.

For what jobs :

This could be employed :

1. To introduce the Community Development Programme or any welfare programme.
2. To present the annual programmes of extension activities.
3. To enlist people's participation in community work, campaigns like *vana mahotsava* etc., and national festivities.

Advantages :

1. Large numbers of people can be reached.
2. Serves as a preparatory stage for other methods

3. Group psychology can be used in promoting the programme.
4. Reactions of the people to a programme can be assessed.
5. Personal acquaintance can be promoted.
6. Prestige of the local people can be boosted.
7. All kinds of subjects can be introduced.
8. Adoption of practices can be accomplished at low cost.

Limitations :

1. Meeting-place and facilities are not always adequate.
2. Scope for discussion is limited except possibly for a few questions and answers.
3. Handling the topic becomes difficult because of mixed composition of audience.
4. Circumstances beyond control like factions and weather might reduce the attendance.

3. Group Contacts

What is it ?

A group is a body of individuals drawn together around a common interest. Such a group (less than twenty in number) reaching collective decisions through cooperative discussions is utilised to promote an objective. It is essential to understand that the group here does not mean a caste group, but a group of persons who are actually involved in a particular decision, e.g., a group of people taking up the widening of the road which they use.

Why is it ?

Democracy in action involves group functioning. Systematic discussion among representative persons promotes the analysis of commonly felt needs. Many important problems can be solved or needs met only through group action, since local problems are the primary concern of the affected people. Inspired and determined local groups can often contribute more to the solutions of the problems than any outside agency. Meeting of such groups provide opportunity to the members of the group to exchange experiences and points of view and to develop the habit of talking, thinking, planning and working together.

What to do :

The following steps help to work out this method effectively:

1. After locating several individuals interested in a particular problem through individual contacts (Method 1),

invite them to meet for informal group discussions. Also request them to bring other interested people to such a meeting.

2. Examine whether any one of the members of the group is capable of leading the discussions and entrust him with that responsibility. Otherwise, lead the discussions yourself. This may be necessary only where extension has just started and where organised villages are not existent.
3. Choose a comfortable place for the meeting. Circular seating arrangement should be made, if possible.
4. See that the atmosphere of the meeting is friendly and informal. At the beginning of the discussion try to bring out the ideas of the members of the group and define the problem. Do not dominate the discussions.
5. The discussions should promote recognition of problems by the group and also create the desire for a solution. Present all the available information about the problem before the group, preferably with suitable illustrative material.
6. Do not give the impression that your solution is the best, and do not condemn the existing and suggested practices. Do not have preconceived ideas for acceptance.
7. Encourage shy people to talk. Often they have valuable suggestions to make. Discourage speech-makers.
8. At the end of the discussions, groups should arrive at the steps for taking action, i.e., what is to be done, how it is to be done, who is to do what, and when it is to be done. Make available technical advice and alternate solutions to the group, if necessary.
9. Give due credit to the group
10. Conduct the group meeting as effectively as possible.
11. Undertake a systematic follow-up.

For what jobs :

The following jobs may be approached through this method :

1. Any intensive cultivation method for any crop, plant protection measures, soil conservation work, village sanitation problems, village recreation activities, formation and working of cooperatives, programme planning organisation of *mahila mandals,* recreational programmes, small savings programmes, etc.

Advantages :

1. Helps develop objectivity towards ideas and sympathetic attitude towards those who disagree.
2. Every participant shares the pride of having helped solve the problem.
3. Helps in deciding debatable issues.
4. Leaders, group interests and problems are discovered.
5. Group planning and group action results.
6. Fairly large numbers can be reached.

Limitations :

1. Factions in the village might hinder the effective working of the method.
2. Traditional leaders who are not functional come in the way of group activities.
3. Possibility of creating rivalries.
4. Attendance of persons not directly connected cannot be avoided easily.

4. Method Demonstration

What is it ?

A method demonstration is a short-time demonstration given before a group to show how to carry out an entirely new practice or an old practice in a better way. This method, however, is not concerned with proving the worth of a practice but with how to do something. It is definitely not an experiment or a trial, but a teaching effort.

Why is it ?

To effectively impress people that a particular recommended practice is a practicable proposition in their own situation. It teaches a new skill.

What to do :

Planning and preparation for a method demonstration meeting are similar to those mentioned for general meetings (Method 2).

1. Be at the spot early to check up equipment and material.
2. Make physical arrangements so that all participants can have a good look at the demonstration and take part in the discussions.
3. Conduct demonstration step by step, encouraging questions at each stage.
4. Give opportunity to individuals to practise the skill.

5. Distribute bulletins, leaflets, etc., related to the demonstration.
6. Get the names of the participants and list those who contemplate the adoption of the practice. This helps in the follow-up and increases the number of persons desiring the change.

Follow-up :

7. Publish a news story on the demonstration.
8. Entrust the leaders with the task of watching the adoption of the new practice.

Suggestions :

9. Select topics based on the needs of people.
10. Demonstration should be timely.
11. Give good advance publicity to build up interest and secure wide participation.
12. Use equipment that is easily available to rural people.
13. Clear doubts, but avoid arguments.
14. Appreciate the methods already being used by the participants.

For what jobs :

Some of the specific jobs that could be taught through this method :

1. Sanitary latrines, soak pits, smokeless ovens, soap-making, lice control, cooking, sewing and knitting, cattle stall construction, seed preservation, seed-treatment, etc.
2. Nursery bed, line-sowing, improved implements, application and placement of fertilisers, seed selection, eradication of ticks and mites in cattle, etc.

Advantages :

1. Effective in teaching skills.
2. Stimulates action.
3. Builds confidence.
4. Serves publicity purpose.
5. Increases acquaintance of extension workers with the local people.
6. Introduces change of practice at low cost.

Limitations :

1. Not suited to all subject-matter.
2. Needs great deal of preparation, equipment and skill on the part of the extension worker.
3. Causes a set-back to the whole programme if improperly coordinated.

5. Result Demonstration

What is it?

A result demonstration is a way of showing people the value of a new practice. Such demonstrations require a substantial period of time. Comparisons are usually necessary and records are essential. The result demonstration may be for a single recommended practice or a series of practices that come in sequence with respect to a problem.

Why is it?

1. To prove the worth of a new practice.
2. To show that the recommendations are locally applicable and are profitable.

What to do:

Planning:

1. Discuss with the people and find out their interest.
2. Consult the specialist.
3. Outline a definite plan and put it in writing.
4. Select responsive farmers in consultation with the local people.
5. Discuss and plan with the selected farmers.
6. Announce widely.

Conducting:

1. Get all the materials ready.
2. Start the demonstration in the presence of the villagers.
3. Mark demonstration plots with large signs if it is a field demonstration.
4. Assist the farmer, on whose field the demonstration is conducted, in keeping proper records.
5. Make a calendar of operations.
6. Visit the demonstration site regularly, for supervision and guidance.
7. Give publicity to the demonstration and the farmer at suitable stages, preferably through other farmers' visits.
8. Conduct tours to successful demonstrations at proper times.
9. Let the selected farmer tell people about the demonstration, when possible.
10. Summarise, record and establish proof of the practice.
11. Give wide publicity to the results.
12. Enlist other farmers to adopt the new practice.

Suggestions:

1. Limit the scope of the demonstration to prove the advocated practice rather than finding out a new truth.

2. Have a comparison or check plot.
3. Use local illustrations of good practices rather than result demonstration, whenever possible, in order to save time and extension effort.
4. It is better to conduct one good demonstration rather than a number of half-hearted attempts.
5. Let the benefit of the demonstration reach as many local people as possible through conducted tours, publicity, etc.
6. Select cooperative farmers in different areas to undertake demonstrations, avoiding sticking to the same farmers for several demonstrations.
7. Select places for demonstrations which are frequented by the villagers.
8. Use the results of successful demonstrations in meetings, individual contacts, news-letters, etc.
9. In cases of failures analyse the causes.

For what jobs :

It is applicable to many extension jobs :

1. Improved kitchen, child care, compost, better cattle feeds, etc.
2. Improved seeds, fertiliser application, plant protection measures, castration of scrub bulls, artificial insemination, etc.

Advantages :

1. Helps in introducing a beneficial new practice.
2. Convinces the hesitating farmers and workers through the principle, seeing is believing.'
3. Provides factual data.
4. Gives the extension worker experience that helps him recommend the practice with greater conviction.
5. Develops local leadership.
6. Convinces farmers that the extension workers are practical.

Limitations :

1. Finding a suitable farmer willing to keep records is often difficult.
2. Results may be vitiated by uncontrollable factors like weather.
3. An unsuccessful demonstration may create strong unfavourable conditions for other extension activities.
4. It is not suitable for all advocated practices.

5. Requires elaborate and thorough preparation; its cost is very high.
6. Creates rivalries sometimes.

6. **Campaign**

What is it?

A campaign is an intensive teaching activity undertaken at an opportune moment for a brief period, focussing attention in a concerted manner towards a particular problem so as to stimulate the widest possible interest in the community. Campaign methods can be used only after an advocated practice is found acceptable to the local people through method or result demonstrations or other extension methods.

Why is it?

1. It is employed to induce emotional participation of the local community as a whole and to create a conducive psychological climate for the adoption of the new practice.

What to do:

Planning:

1. Find out the local need.
2. Consult local leaders and agencies.
3. Consult specialists.
4. Ensure technical services and supplies.
5. Select a period suitable to the community, announce the dates well in advance and build up the enthusiasm of the people.

Conducting:

1. Work through the local leaders.
2. Work as per plan.
3. Watch the campaign closely and throughout.
4. Ensure that failures are eliminated.

Follow-up:

1. Make individual contacts and find out the reactions.
2. Find out the failures and analyse.
3. Give publicity to the successful campaign and the leaders responsible.

For what jobs:

1. Rat control, lice control, village sanitation, mosquito control, vaccination, castration of scrub bulls, etc.
2. Plant protection work, tank desilting, etc.

Advantages :

1. A maximum number of farmers can be reached, in the quickest time possible in introducing a simple practice.
2. Gives quick results at lower costs.
3. Successful campaigns create conducive atmosphere for popularising other methods.
4. Builds up community confidence.
5. This is advantageous with respect to certain practices which are effective only when the entire community adopts them.

Limitations :

1. It is advantageous only when all participants cooperate in the campaign.
2. Cannot be adopted when the advocated practice involves complicated technicalities.
3. Involves thorough preparation and close association of technical agencies, concerted efforts of the Block staff and propaganda technique, etc.
4. It is applicable to only a few topics.

7. Voluntary and Local Leadership

What is it?

This method is the use of leader-follower pattern existent in any community. Local leadership is utilised to reach a large number of farmers. The method involves locating, developing and utilising the local, functional and voluntary leadership.

Why is it?

This method is employed :

1. To put across a new idea in such a manner as to be accepted with least resistance.
2. To have local people with information or know-how who can carry on without the extension workers.
3. To develop local leaders who take on increasing responsibilities in conducting their own affairs and community work.

What to do :

The following points are to be taken into consideration while employing this method :

1. Decide on specific duties to be performed by local leaders.
2. Select or elect local leaders. This could be achieved in the following ways :

(a) By individual contacts with the local people.
(b) By assisting the local group to make intelligent selection by explaining the function of the leader in relation to the job.
(c) By associating leaders suggested by *panchayats*, societies, Farmers' Forum, clubs, and other institutions and groups.
(d) By recognising the traditional, functional and potential leaders.

3. Give trial assignments to the leaders located before entrusting further responsibility.
4. Training the leaders :
   (a) Run leader-training camps.
   (b) Acquaint them with details of leadership jobs and organisational procedures.
   (c) Teach subject-matter.
   (d) Acquaint them with the sources of demonstration material.
   (e) Provide them with teaching aids.
   (f) Associate them in planning and organising the village activities.
   (g) Assist them in conducting demonstrations, assembling materials and other preparatory work.

Follow-up :

1. Recognise leaders and honour them in public meetings.
2. Take the advice of the leaders on important issues.
3. Encourage the leaders to develop their own ideas and to start their own programmes.
4. Give them more and more responsibilities.
5. Invite them to participate in tours and meetings.
6. Let them lead the visitor to a village.
7. Visit their village and appreciate their work.

Suggestions :

The following qualities make a person a good leader.

1. He has faith in his people and their ability.
2. He likes, is liked and is respected by his people.
3. He is willing to share the credit for his good work.
4. He has followers in all sections of his community.
5. He is willing to consult his followers.
6. He is eager to learn, willing to work and sets a good example.
7. He is truthful, dependable and impartial.

8. He knows the local needs and conditions.
9. He has service motive in improving conditions in the community.
10. He is successful in his field of activity.
11. He is progressive in outlook and faces failures calmly.

For what jobs :

The extension activities that could be promoted by this method are :

1. Teaching local people the knowledge acquired from extension workers, subject-matter training camps or other reliable sources.
2. Mobilising local initiative and resources and setting desirable and attainable objectives for the community.
3. Developing and maintaining local community organisations—programme planning.

Advantages :

1. It multiplies or extends the efforts of an extension worker, i.e., reaches more people.
2. Since local leaders are trusted and followed, this method is effective in convincing rural people.
3. The ideas could be conveyed in the local language more appropriately by this method.
4. Saves the time of an extension worker.
5. Develops local leadership and self-help in the community.
6. Builds up cohesiveness in the community.
7. Builds up confidence and prestige of the community.
8. This is comparatively economical and creates a conducive atmosphere for other methods.
9. A good leader acts as a shock-absorber between the people and the extension agency when things go wrong.

Limitations :

1. Functional leaders are limited.
2. False leadership and jealousy comes in the way of effectiveness of this method.
3. Leadership may be wanting in matters of literacy and competence.
4. It is a slow process until an effective group is developed.
5. Local leaders might use their prestige for personal gain.
6. Extension workers' personal contact with the people might become limited.

8. **Exhibition**

What is it?

An exhibition is a systematic display of models, specimens, charts, information, posters, etc., in a sequence so as to be significant in teaching or creating interest in the participating members. An exhibition covers three stages of Extension Education, viz, arousing interest, creating desire to learn and providing a chance to take a decision.

Why is it?

1. To acquaint the people with better standards.
2. To influence people to adopt better practices.
3. To create interest in a wider range of people.
4. To promote understanding and create goodwill towards extension.

What to do:

1. Decide upon the character of the exhibition, taking into consideration the time, audience and immediate purpose.
2. Make it simple and understandable, working upon one idea at a time or place.
3. Let there be sequence and continuity.
4. Use a few rather than many objects.
5. Spacing and decoration should have an appeal to the eye.
6. Label the exhibits legibly and briefly.
7. Interpreters should be thoroughly informed and precise in their explanations.
8. High level display would be ideal.
9. Action exhibits attract attention and kindle curiosity.
10. Distribute relevant literature.
11. Give advance publicity.
12. Let the exhibits be portable and of an impressive size.
13. Estimate the effectiveness of the exhibition:
    (a) By analysing attendance, enquiries and requests.
    (b) By making notes of suggestions given.

Suggestions:

1. Use local material as far as possible, since specimens from the locality will have greater significance.
2. Take advantage of local festivals and fairs.

For what jobs:

Exhibition is broadly suitable for a wide range of topics such as:

1. Improved home living.

2. Model villages.
3. Irrigation practices.
4. Soil conservation.
5. Products of village industries.
6. Display of the best material in the community.

Advantages :

1. One of the best media for reaching illiterates.
2. Publicity value where extension work is beginning.
3. It has imaginative appeal.
4. It caters to the mixed group.
5. It can fit into festive occasions and can serve recreational requirements.
6. It promotes creative abilities to some extent.
7. It can stimulate competitive spirit when used for that purpose.
8. It could be utilised for creating a market for certain products.

Limitations :

1. Requires much preparation and investment.
2. Cannot be widely used.
3. Cannot be used repeatedly at the same place without making substantial changes.
4. It cannot lend itself to all topics.
5. It cannot represent all the phases of work.

9. Conducted Tours

What is it ?

It is a method by which a group gets together for the purpose of seeing an improved performance or result of a practice in actual situations. This requires the group to move out of the area for a considerable period with a definite programme.

Why is it ?

1. To convince the farmers by providing them an opportunity to see the result of a new practice, demonstration of a skill, new implements, and thus have an idea of the accomplishments in other areas.
2. To help people to recognise problems, to create interest, to generate discussion and to provoke action.

What to do :

Planning :

1. Decide upon the places to be visited and the things to be seen and learnt.

2. Decide upon the composition of the group and leaders.
3. Discuss with the participants details related to the tour.
4. Help them decide the dates, period, transport, food and other related matters.
5. Get in touch with the concerned persons and agencies.

Conducting :

1. Keep the interest of the group always in view.
2. Let everyone see, hear and discuss at the places of visit.
3. Allow time for questions and answers.
4. Help them make notes of interesting information.
5. Do not crowd the programme or bore the members.
6. Provide for recreation, look to the comforts of the party and keep up the cheer.

Follow-up :

1. Contact the members individually and in groups.
2. Lead their interest to action.
3. Arrange for necessary supplies and services.
4. Recognise and appreciate the best and the quick learner.
5. Use successful members for reaching others.
5. Build up news stories.

Suggestions :

1. Plan in advance.
2. Take up correspondence well in time.
3. Select homogeneous groups for specialised tours and representative groups of several sections for general tours.
4. Let not the group be too big.
5. Have the representatives of the party share the responsibility for food, finance, recreation, maintenance of accounts, etc.
6. Let the participants speak at the places visited about their own achievements.

For what jobs :

Conducted tours may be arranged to provide opportunity to the rural folk to visit places and institutions which tackle problems having a relation to rural life. These places may be :

1. Research stations, training institutions, model villages, areas of advanced development, leading private farms, places of historical and cultural significance.
2. Exhibitions, agricultural and cattle fairs, farmers' seminars and conferences, etc.

Advantages :

1. Can serve to stimulate people to action.

2. Percentage of takes to exposures are high.
3. Participants become active cooperators.
4. Promotes better understanding between participants and extension workers.
5. Widens the vision of participants.
6. Develops leadership.
7. Could also serve sight-seeing purposes.

Limitations :

1. It is costly.
2. Difficulty in fixing up the season and time suitable to all.
3. Lack of facilities like transport and accommodation at the halting places, etc.
4. If badly conducted would create frustration.
5. If other interests overlap the educational purpose of the tour, its effectiveness would be reduced.

10. Literature

(Leaflets, circular letters and newspapers)

What is it ?

It is written material, often supported by appropriate illustrations and employed as an extension tool.

Leaflets and Folders

What is it ?

A leaflet is usually a single sheet of printed matter, sometimes folded. It gives accurate or specific information on a particular topic. A pamphlet or a bulletin may contain and deal with a number of related topics.

Why is it ?

1. To provide precise and reliable scientific information told in simple language about a single practice or item of interest.
2. To serve the immediate needs of the farmer like control of pests, campaign against rats, treatment of seed potatoes, etc.

How to do it :

1. Write on one simple practice or idea at a time.
2. Select topics related to the urgent needs of the farmer.
3. Write in simple short sentences and paragraphs in the local language.
4. Use illustrations and pictures.

5. Give complete directions (after checking on their correctness).

For what jobs ?

1. Can be used for a wide variety of topics, commencing from the adjustment of a plough to the organisation of a village *mela*.
2. For dissemination of scientific information.

Advantages :

1. Can reach a large section of literate people simultaneously.
2. Can be preserved and used for reference purposes.
3. Comparatively cheap.
4. Accurate information and minute details can be given.
5. Can be made easy as well as enjoyable to read.
6. Can be used to maintain or increase the tempo of work.
7. Can be used to continue contacts.
8. Can be used to enhance the prestige of local leaders and groups.
9. Can promote literacy.

Limitations :

1. It is of little use in areas of low literacy.
2. Cannot be used in exclusion of other methods.
3. Will lose its significance if not carefully prepared and used.

Circular Letter

What is it ?

A letter sent to many people periodically or on special occasions.

Why is it ?

1. To maintain continuous contact with farmers.
2. To communicate some general information which could best be put in the form of a letter.

What to do :

1. Let the letters be brief and courteous.
2. Have a single purpose and write in simple language.
3. Give complete information.
4. Be clear in statements which should lead to action.
5. The letters should be a part of a programme or campaign.

For what jobs ?

Same as in the case of leaflets and folders.

Advantages :

Same as in the case of leaflets and folders.

2. Percentage of takes to exposures are high.
3. Participants become active cooperators.
4. Promotes better understanding between participants and extension workers.
5. Widens the vision of participants.
6. Develops leadership.
7. Could also serve sight-seeing purposes.

Limitations :

1. It is costly.
2. Difficulty in fixing up the season and time suitable to all.
3. Lack of facilities like transport and accommodation at the halting places, etc.
4. If badly conducted would create frustration.
5. If other interests overlap the educational purpose of the tour, its effectiveness would be reduced.

10. **Literature**

(Leaflets, circular letters and newspapers)

What is it ?

It is written material, often supported by appropriate illustrations and employed as an extension tool.

Leaflets and Folders

What is it ?

A leaflet is usually a single sheet of printed matter, sometimes folded. It gives accurate or specific information on a particular topic. A pamphlet or a bulletin may contain and deal with a number of related topics.

Why is it ?

1. To provide precise and reliable scientific information told in simple language about a single practice or item of interest.
2. To serve the immediate needs of the farmer like control of pests, campaign against rats, treatment of seed potatoes, etc.

How to do it :

1. Write on one simple practice or idea at a time.
2. Select topics related to the urgent needs of the farmer.
3. Write in simple short sentences and paragraphs in the local language.
4. Use illustrations and pictures.

5. Give complete directions (after checking on their correctness).

For what jobs?

1. Can be used for a wide variety of topics, commencing from the adjustment of a plough to the organisation of a village *mela*.
2. For dissemination of scientific information.

Advantages:

1. Can reach a large section of literate people simultaneously.
2. Can be preserved and used for reference purposes.
3. Comparatively cheap.
4. Accurate information and minute details can be given.
5. Can be made easy as well as enjoyable to read.
6. Can be used to maintain or increase the tempo of work.
7. Can be used to continue contacts.
8. Can be used to enhance the prestige of local leaders and groups.
9. Can promote literacy.

Limitations:

1. It is of little use in areas of low literacy.
2. Cannot be used in exclusion of other methods.
3. Will lose its significance if not carefully prepared and used.

Circular Letter

What is it?

A letter sent to many people periodically or on special occasions.

Why is it?

1. To maintain continuous contact with farmers.
2. To communicate some general information which could best be put in the form of a letter.

What to do:

1. Let the letters be brief and courteous.
2. Have a single purpose and write in simple language.
3. Give complete information.
4. Be clear in statements which should lead to action.
5. The letters should be a part of a programme or campaign.

For what jobs?

Same as in the case of leaflets and folders.

Advantages:

Same as in the case of leaflets and folders.

Limitations :

Same as in the case of leaflets and folders.

Newspaper

What is it ?

It is a periodical with the service-type or news-type of information.

Why is it ?

1. To serve as a forum for extension activity in an area or a community.
2. To put out information which would be of service to the leaders and people and to highlight the important activities of individuals and groups which are worthy of emulation.
3. To acquaint the public simultaneously about programmes, activities, progress, etc.

What to do :

1. Put the matter in story type. It should be easy to understand and simple in language.
2. Give a personal touch.
3. Give accurate details.
4. Plan publication so that the different issues are in a sequence.
5. Have enough copies so as to pass them round in the community.
6. Encourage local farmers to write.

For what jobs ?

Same as in the case of leaflets and folders.

11. Farmers' Calls

What is it ?

It is a call made by a farmer or a group on the extension worker at his office or home with the purpose of obtaining information or getting assistance from him, or for developing acquaintance with him.

Why is it ?

1. To promote closer contacts with farmers.
2. To build up the interests of individuals and groups.
3. To discuss problems in greater detail.
4. To arrange for or assure supplies and services.
5. To bring about contact between the farmers and other agencies.

What to do :

1. Be cordial and keep the visitor at ease.
2. Keep the office-room attractive with bulletin-boards, leaflets, etc.
3. Try to cultivate the practice of having specific days and hours for farmers' calls.
4. Make arrangements for providing information to the callers in your absence.
5. Keep a record of the calls and follow them up.
6. Encourage the farmers to call on you, if they are shy in their own group.
7. Be business-like and try to discourage unnecessary calls.

For what jobs?

To discuss the plan of individuals or groups of farmers on matters like :

1. Building a new house.
2. Constructing a cattle stall.
3. Sinking an irrigation well.
4. Installing a pump.
5. Crop planning.
6. Starting a poultry farm.

Advantages :

1. Satisfaction of the visitor may result by repeated calls.
2. Will enhance the prestige and reputation of the extension worker in the community.
3. Will create a favourable atmosphere for village work.
4. Will indicate clearly the problems affecting the individuals and groups.
5. Will indicate the confidence reposed in the extension worker by the people.
6. Will give an insight into the community structure.

Limitations :

1. The extension worker cannot be at headquarters always.
2. Callers in his absence may not be satisfied with the information or guidance obtained.
3. Certain individuals might try to gain personal ends through the extension worker.

12. Radio Programme

What is it?

It is a method, using the radio for communication, seeking to build up the attitudes of farmers toward a desired way of life.

It could be used for debates on selected problems and for dissemination of information through talks, dialogues, folk songs, dramas, etc. Since receiving sets in villages are still very few, this method has restricted utility.

Why is it ?

1. To reach a large number of people at a time.
2. To provoke thinking in the audience about current problems, to disseminate information quickly in emergencies, etc.

How to do it :

1. Encourage local communities to hear the radio collectively, if necessary.
2. Encourage them to listen to rural programmes.
3. Encourage them to correspond with the broadcasting stations to express their likes, needs and opinions.
4. Maintain contact with the broadcasting stations yourself.
5. Specially announce interesting programmes in advance.
6. Feed news stories and cultural programmes related to the locality to the broadcasting stations.
7. Have a list of talented persons in the area and arrange their participation in a broadcasting programme.

For what jobs ?

Almost for any subject like the following :

1. Disscusions on the Japanese method of paddy cultivation.
2. Control of fowl cholera.
3. Rotation of crops.
4. Control of crop pests and diseases.
5. Weather bulletins.
6. Market news, etc.

Advantages :

1. Reaches many people at low cost.
2. Dissemination of urgent information on weather or market.
3. Wide range of experience can be pooled and made available.
4. Talks by specialists will serve educational purpose.
5. Recreational needs can also be met.
6. Local talents and abilities can be encouraged.

Limitations :

1. Lack of radio receiving sets.
2. Recommendations may not be universally applicable.

3. Broadcasting stations are not always accessible to extension workers.[1]

Selection and use of Extension Methods

If one could really know the cause-and-effect relationships involved in changing human behaviour, extension teaching could be made more systematic and less mysterious. As a result, the choice of extension methods could be made in such a way that would speed up the educational progress immeasurably. Social scientists in general and psychologists in particular have dealt with this phenomenon with increasing insight and success since the beginning of the science of psychology nearly 100 years ago. But the human mind still presents mysteries unfathomed by man with the best of his insight and devices. Hence, the selection and use of the means for teaching in any situation are in part a problem of predicating the relationship between selected means and ends. Some things about teaching, however, are pretty well-known. When these are applied properly, significant impacts on learners can be anticipated.

General Guides

The goal of extension teaching for Community Development is to attain desirable action on the part of many people. The effort is to induce all those for whom a recommendation is appropriate to take the necessary action. Before this can happen—or action is obtained—however, the people concerned must become interested, must develop a desire to make the change, obtain the skill necessary for doing so, and then take action which results in satisfaction to them. To state the problem differently, all action is in response to a stimulation provided by an appropriate situation. Often people do not feel they have a problem or that certain action will help them. In short, people often are not interested in change.

But, until interest is aroused and people learn how to make the needed changes successfully, no action will result. All of this implies that extension teaching methods must be used to build a background of ideas and suggestions of facts, and above all, to develop in people an interest and a desire for change

[1] This ends the quoted material from *Extension Methods and Community Development in India* prepared by Dwarakinath, Srinivasamurty and Hanumappa, Department of Agriculture, Mysore, Information Booklet No. 6, April 1959, pp. 26-41.

they need to make. This requires far more than mere telling people what they should do. To tell a person to do something one does not have to know how to do it oneself. But to teach how to do things one must be able to do them oneself. To get individuals to see the need for change, to help them want to make useful changes and to develop in them the skills necessary for success with the action suggested calls for the highest type of teaching.

Learning is a habit-forming process. People break old habits and learn new ones only one at a time. In other words, people learn one thing at a time. In extension teaching, therefore, it is usually unwise to present too many ideas at one time. Teaching one step at a time, presenting one idea at a time, is likely to be more successful. Knowing this fact, extension workers should be aware that ideas must be carefully selected and put forcibly before people.

It has been said that life is like a stream. In some people this stream may be sluggish and few ideas may enter or be carried forward, but in most individuals the stream of modern life is a torrent in which many ideas are moving along. These may be first on top, then under, then whirled aside and later thrust out. Extension workers try to put still more ideas into this stream. To get them into the stream and keep them there requires careful planning and teaching. Ideas must be big enough, and good enough, that they can be launched in this stream and hold their course. No weak, poorly presented lecture or unplanned village meeting, badly conducted demonstration or unattractive exhibit will force the idea afloat in the torrent of life. The currents, cross currents and undertow in village life are much too fierce.

Not only must recommendations be good, but they must also avoid a lot of other things including too many ands, ifs and buts. Furthermore, ideas must be reinforced, constantly nourished, and stimulated by the right suggestions if they are to stay afloat and have their effect in changing people's behaviour. This means, for example, that each news article, poster, meeting, demonstration, exhibit and tour must be chosen and used for the special part it can best play in the task of promoting desirable action among people. All these methods, when used skilfully, help to hold before people the main goal, and the action necessary to achieve it.

Obviously, it is necessary that suggested changes be basically sound. They must fit a real need as the people see it. They must be in line with the people's felt needs. People must be successful with the practices when they try them. They must get the results anticipated. Changes they make must ultimately give satisfaction. Success with one action leads people to a desire for learning about and taking other actions. In true form this is the result of Extension Education in action.

Specific Guides

It has been pointed out that rural people learn primarily by seeing, hearing, or doing the things to be learned. Extension teaching then consists basically of arranging situations for the learner to see, to hear or to do that which is to be learned. These opportunities are provided through the skilful use of extension teaching methods. To obtain action—to cause people to make desired changes and to ensure success and satisfaction—extension teaching effort usually must be planned to develop the six phases in the attainment of successful change in people's behaviour. These are:

1. Have the idea call attention.
2. Become interested in taking the action suggested.
3. Develop desire or want to make the change suggested.
4. Have an opportunity to make the desired change and take action.
5. Develop some confidence in the ability to make the change.
6. Obtain satisfaction from the action taken.

These basic phases of the process of promoting change in people's behaviour do not appear as distinct and easily identified units but in an overlapping and evolving manner. They emerge from the process of logical thought and reasoned wonderment. Hence, they are not a product of the answer but of the learning necessary to arrive at the answer.

Accumulated experience and research findings support the suggestion that certain extension methods, when properly used, contribute effectively to the attainment of each of the fundamental steps in people's behaviour required in the process of change.

1. *Methods useful in getting attention*

To provide learning experiences for people, extension workers must first get their attention. Therefore, appropriate ways

and means of gaining attention must be decided upon. This is the foundation stage for successfully making the ideas enter into the minds of people. To place ideas successfully before people requires planned and frequent use of a variety of teaching methods. This is so because it is necessary not only to place ideas before people but to keep them there until attention is obtained. At first, the idea is likely to be only a passing one. A picture here, a poster there, a meeting, etc., will arrest the attention of people and prepare them to notice other signs that may gradually form the idea and drive it into consciousness. Motion, contrast, colour, size, frequency, intensity are all useful devices to win people's attention. The following are very effective for this purpose :

(a) Pictures related to the subject
(b) Demonstrations
(c) News stories
(d) Survey results
(e) Slogans
(f) Statement of conditions.
(g) Posters
(h) Radio talks
(i) Cartoons
(j) Displays
(k) Exhibits

2. *Methods useful in developing interest*

Of the many characteristics of human behaviour, an understanding of people's interest is probably the most important. For both the amount and direction of one's life accomplishments are determined largely by the factor of interest. Usually one cannot be taught anything until one becomes interested, but after one has developed interest one cannot be kept out from learning. Thus, learning without interest does not take place to any appreciable degree. Several facts are well established in studies of human behaviour with respect to the factor of interest. People interested in certain problems acquire more information about them. To learn, people tend to expose themselves to opportunities that are congenial or in line with the interests they already hold. Interest usually represents the objectives or goals of an individual.

Technology means comparatively little to a person until he is able to connect it in some way to a desire or interest. Hence, interest is the most important phase of motivation. Interest

gives people satisfaction when they take successful action to meet it. Learning is the result of the satisfaction of the learner. Present interests provide the starting point for expanding them and for developing new ones. The factor of interests tends to control the influence of Extension Education because only those people who are interested will expose themselves to the programme. People become interested in things they feel will help them meet their needs and difficulties. Teaching methods should be chosen and used, therefore, so as to impress upon people the idea that they have problems and that the recommended practice will help them solve their problems. The following methods are useful in developing people's interest :

(a) Give information about the subject through :
  meetings of various types, film strip and slide lectures, subject-matter news items, radio talks, bulletins and pamphlets, tours, testimonials.

(b) Create activity towards the programme by :
  organising community work, leader activity, result demonstrations.

(c) Use appeals to values such as :
  enjoyment, increased income, health, comfort, acquisition of desirable things, time for leisure, more conveniences, and|or others paramount in the local value system.

3. *Methods of developing confidence*

Development and maintenance of confidence should be parallel to all other changes in people's attitudes and behaviour. In free societies, confidence is the key to achieving results from Extension Education, because action on the part of people is voluntary. Confidence corresponds to the idea of goodwill. Once broken, confidence is difficult to restore, either in oneself or in other people. It is necessary, therefore, for extension workers to safeguard the factor of confidence in every step of teaching. Confidence should be viewed as a rising line running through all the steps in the extension teaching process. It should grow in intensity as desire is created and followed in turn by action and satisfaction. Listed below are some items useful in developing and maintaining confidence.

(a) Recommendation is economical and practical
(b) Practice can be readily adopted
(c) Demonstrations widely adopted
(d) People see demonstrations

(e) Testimonials
(f) Repetition
(g) Slogans
(h) Personal visits by the Gram Sevak and others

4. *Methods useful in creating desire*

Attitudes tend to be general. Interests tend to be specific in the objects to which they are attached. But desire is quite specific. Desire comes only when the subject or plan of action suggested is considered favourable by a person as it applies to his individual problem. Hence, desire tends to be specific and an individual matter. Desire is an outgrowth of interest and confidence. In creating desire, appeal to the feelings and emotions of people should be employed to support the facts and logic previously presented to develop interest. When interest has been developed, the reasoning stage is over and suggestion is again employed. A desire is a want. To make that want felt and to make sure that individuals act to satisfy the want, the right appeals must be made to stimulate feeling and emotion. For example, the suggestion that the use of planting good seed may eventually enable the family to buy things it wants, may result in a much greater impact than all the argument based on the need for improving agriculture. By the right use of proper suggestions and appeals, individuals can be brought to see themselves in possession of the better condition that is recommended and is desirable. Mental pictures of this nature are powerful stimuli to action.

Good extension teaching helps people envisage and feel the benefit of improved farm, home and community changes. However, many times the intangible things such as self-pride or being a leader in the village community may have a greater pull than more tangible objects. It is proper and necessary, therefore, to use methods which suggest such ideas. In creating desire there is need for extensive use of exhibits and methods such as demonstrations, pictures, working models and the like to show concretely the things recommended. Just how does a field of good grain look like? Seeing things that are properly done helps people answer that question and tends to stimulate their desire to be in the new condition. A number of methods and activities such as the following are useful in creating desire.

(a) People see the real object
(b) People see installations or operation

(c) Participation in demonstration
(d) Circulars suggesting benefits
(e) 'Before and after' pictures
(f) Working models
(g) Testimonials
(h) Leadership in action
(i) Health aids
(j) Samples
(k) Exhibits
(l) Practice can be readily adopted
(m) Actual results presented in all possible ways

5. *Methods useful in ensuring action*

Desire should be followed by action. This implies that people can quickly and easily satisfy the desires created by taking action. If action does not follow soon after the desire has been created, the new desire soon fades away, and people continue as before. This phase of extension teaching often receives the least attention. Actually, it is a crucial step. Progress requires action. Consequently, a variety of teaching methods must be planned and used to assure action that results in benefits to people. Certain methods like the following are useful in the efforts for promoting action.

(a) Make action easy by:
   (1) having services and supplies available,
   (2) eliminating non-essential steps and delays,
   (3) setting out clear-cut, definite steps to be taken.
(b) Use of reminders.
(c) Leaders at work.
(d) Cooperative action.
(e) News stories and radio talks about, and by, people taking action.

6. *Methods useful in maintaining satisfaction*

Satisfaction depends upon the development of confidence, pride and success in accomplishment. Old habits have to be dropped and new ones formed. After a person has adopted a practice, it is important to remain in touch with him, otherwise, in many instances he may cease to follow the new practice unless by doing so he experiences real satisfaction. If favourable action is to continue, satisfaction must result. A number of methods like the following are useful in maintaining satisfaction.

(a) Personal contact when possible
(b) Timely hints

(c) News notes
(d) Personal mention
(e) Showing value of results
(f) Giving more information
(g) Results obtained by others following the same practice given through various media

The six behavioural changes just listed overlap each other as development takes place. In a like manner, the methods are overlapping in that the use of one method may contribute to several kinds of changes. It is a cumulative effect that extension teaching must attain in order to reach useful objectives. Effective execution of the steps mentioned gives such results.

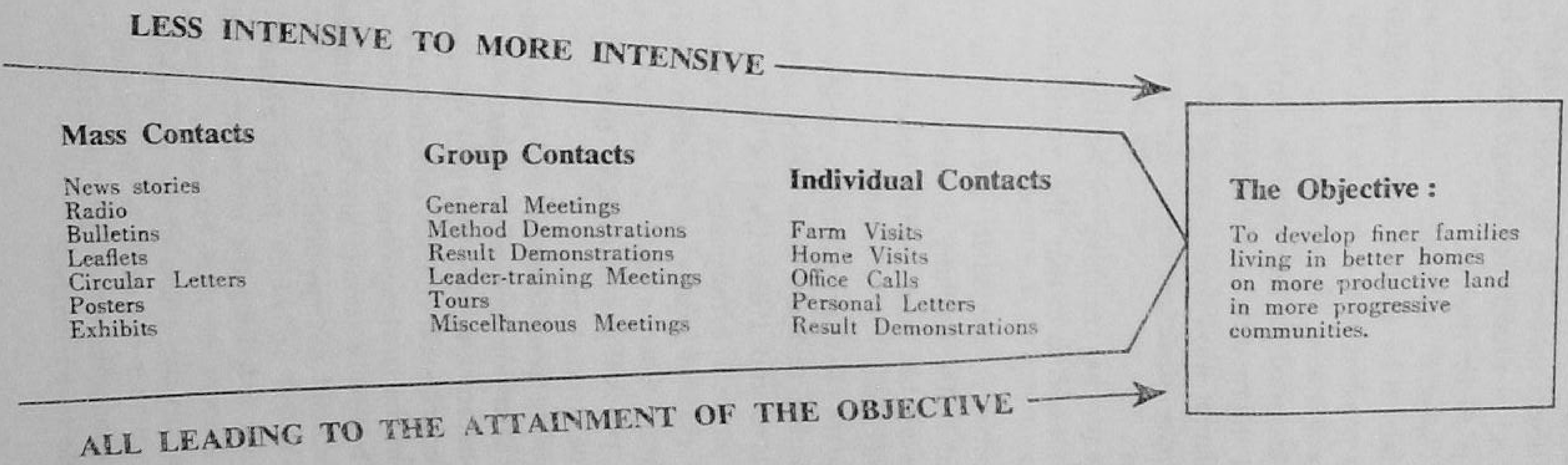
Criteria for Extension Teaching Practices

Extension teaching is properly viewed as the process of arranging situations that stimulate and guide learning activity among participants toward predetermined educational objectives or goals which specify desirable changes in the behaviour of people and the conditions in which they live. More explicitly, it consists of planning and arranging situations in which the important things to be learned are called to the attention of the prospective learner, his interest developed, desire aroused, and action promoted.

Programme execution assumes that a programme has been carefully developed which specifies clearly the basic objectives to be attained through the extension teaching process. The essential function, then, of an extension worker or lay leader in his effort to promote learning among others, is that of creating situations that (a) provide an opportunity for people to learn, and (b) stimulate mental and overt activity among potential learners that produces the desired learning. This is done through a skilful use of extension teaching methods by which sound principles of teaching and learning are applied. The following list of criteria specify extension teaching practices that are believed to attain maximum educational attainment when properly applied.

1. Major extension *teaching activities* are selected and designed to contribute directly to the attainment of goals set forth in the programme.
2. A *teaching plan* is prepared and used for guiding the teaching effort related to each major phase of the programme that includes :

PRIMARY EXTENSION METHODS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO INTENSITY OF INFLUENCE



One method complements and supplements another. It is the use of methods in proper combination that makes the greatest impact on individuals. It is the cumulative effect on people—through exposure to an idea repeatedly over time—that results in action. It is the constant 'drip,' not the 'flood,' that wears the stone away. This effect is accomplished through skilful manipulation of extension teaching methods.

(a) Statements of specific teaching objectives showing:
the subject-matter to be dealt with,
the kind of educational change desired in people, and
who is to be reached.

(b) The specific extension methods and teaching materials to be used in attaining objectives.

3. Extension *teaching activities* related to each major phase of the programme are organised in a sequence, and methods are used so that there is repetition in bringing important information to the attention of people in four to six different ways over a period of time.

4. The *learning situation* meets the following important conditions:

(a) Instructor has teaching objectives clearly in mind and makes sure that the participants understand them.

(b) Instructor is adequately prepared in subject-matter related to the teaching objectives.

(c) All available and useful teaching materials are skilfully used.

(d) Instructor has pre-planned teaching methods and techniques that are most likely to be effective and has developed a high level of skill in their use.

(e) The physical arrangement of learning situations is such that as nearly as possible, everyone present (1) hears what is said, (2) sees what is shown, (3) feels physically comfortable, and (4) is free from outside distractions.

5. The following *considerations* are taken into account in selecting extension teaching methods:

(a) The nature and complexity of the subject-matter.

(b) The educational changes expected in people as specified in the teaching objectives.

(c) The relative economic and social importance of the educational change desired.

(d) The extent to which people already know about and are practising the recommended change.

(e) The amount of time extension workers expect to devote to this phase of the programme.

(f) The number of people to be reached.

(g) The economic, social, and educational status of the people to be reached.

(h) The kind and extent of assistance that may be provided by local leaders and others.

(i) The relative effectiveness of the method.

(j) The manner in which the methods selected complement each other in attaining the teaching objectives.

6. In using the *farm and home visit* as a teaching method, the following steps are taken:
   (a) The importance of the farm and home visit to the particular phase of the teaching plan being considered is determined.
   (b) The objective or purpose of the visit is made clear.
   (c) All aspects of the visit are planned.
   (d) The visit is made.
   (e) The visit is recorded.
   (f) The visit is followed-up when needed.

7. In *using correspondence* as an extension teaching method, the following characteristics of a good letter are met:
   (a) Complete—gives all necessary information to accomplish the purpose.
   (b) Correct—contains no mis-statement of facts; correct words.
   ,(c) Clear—is written so it not only can be understood but cannot be misunderstood.
   (d) Correct—contains no mis-statement of facts; correct from standpoint of grammar, spelling, punctuation, and style.
   (e) Courteous—tone is appropriate for the desired response.
   (f) Neat—creates a good first impression, is well arranged on page, free from strikeovers, obvious erasures, and uneven typing.
   (g) Readable—short sentences, short words, and personal words are used.

8. In using the *result demonstration* as an extension teaching method the following steps are taken:
   (a) The situation is analysed to determine if establishment of further confidence in local application of practices is necessary.
   (b) A decision is made about the specific purpose of the result demonstration.
   (c) The demonstration is carefully planned in all of its aspects in cooperation with technical specialists.

(d) The demonstrator is carefully selected with the assistance of local leaders.

(e) The demonstration is carefully started by reviewing the written plan with the demonstrator assisting him with key points, holding a method demonstration if appropriate, and by placing a signboard at the demonstration.

(f) The demonstration is adequately supervised by sufficient visits to check progress and to see that succeeding steps are performed as outlined, and by mentioning to the public at critical stages.

(g) The demonstration is completed in all detail including holding meetings, summarising records and interpreting the data in terms of local conditions.

(h) The demonstration is followed up by reporting results, having demonstrators report at meeting, and using visual aids to present factual proof supplied by the demonstration.

9. In using the *method demonstration* as an extension teaching method, the following steps are taken which are necessary to present the demonstration skilfully and make it visually clear.

(a) It is determined that the subject-matter practice involves skills which need to be demonstrated to many people.

(b) The demonstration is planned in detail by outlining logical steps, identifying key points, selecting demonstration material and equipment and preparing kits of material useful to participants.

(c) The demonstration is rehearsed to make sure that it will be performed in a skilful manner, that key steps and points will be made clear to the audience, and that it will be timed properly.

(d) The demonstration is given in a manner that persons present (a) understand the application of the material to local problems, (b) gain the skill necessary to apply it, and (c) feel that it is important for them to take the action demonstrated.

(e) The demonstration is followed up by (1) arranging for further demonstrations if needed, and (2) checking how much skill is acquired and satisfaction derived by persons in attendance.

10. In using *general meetings* as an extension teaching method, the following steps are taken which are important for making the meeting informative and motivating.
    (a) The place of the meeting in the teaching plan is determined.
    (b) The specific purpose of the meeting and the segment of clientele to be reached is defined.
    (c) The meeting is planned and carried out with the assistance of local leaders.
    (d) The meeting is planned sufficiently far in advance for obtaining (1) a desirable meeting place, (2) adequate public announcement, (3) needed speakers or resource persons, and (4) suitable visual aids.
    (e) The meeting is held (1) with a local leader serving as chairman, (2) the purpose and plan of the meeting is explained thoroughly, (3) the programme is developed in an orderly manner, (4) action is taken on matters calling for decision, (5) names are obtained of persons interested in further information or follow-up, and (6) meeting ends on time following a brief summary by chairman.
    (f) The meeting is followed up by (1) telling what happened through news stories and other mass media, (2) sending additional information, (3) making farm and home visits to meet the persons requesting them, and (4) checking to determine satisfaction with the meeting and use being made of information.
11. *Visual aids* (real objects, models, slides, movies, blackboards, flannel graphs, charts, etc.) are used in all meetings to help illustrate and make clear the materials presented, especially when the important facts are complex, abstract, or difficult to grasp.
12. *Publications* are distributed in ways that reinforce other methods of reaching and influencing people through office calls, farm and home visits, meetings, letters, local leaders, cooperating agencies.
13. *News stories* are used to the limit of resources available as a means of expanding and reinforcing the coverage of various aspects of the programme and are prepared according to rules governing effective news articles.
14. *Circular letters* are used when substantial numbers of people have to be raeched for informing them on

extension activities (meetings, tours, etc.), and providing timely information about farm, home and community problems. The circular letters used:

(a) are planned to serve a definite purpose,
(b) are important, timely and definitely related to the needs and interests of people receiving them,
(c) are mailed according to an accurate mailing list,
(d) are prepared in a forceful, popular style of writing that is clear and concise and within the level of comprehension of the villagers, and
(e) are attractive with wide margins, clear-cut type, orderly arrangement, and illustrated with appeal and forcefulness.

15. *Radio* is used to the limit of resources available when substantial numbers of people are to be reached for giving them timely information. In the preparation of radio presentation the following steps are taken.
   (a) Decision is made about how the presentation can reinforce other extension teaching methods.
   (b) Radio programmes are pointed to specialised and timely phases of the programme.
16. *Exhibits* are used to acquaint the general public with extension work and its accomplishments.
17. Widespread utilisation is made of *voluntary village leaders* in carrying out the programme to:
   (a) enlarge the coverage,
   (b) increase the volume of extension teaching, and
   (c) increase the leadership, or ability of people to cope up with new problems as they arise.
18. *Extension workers,* jointly with local leaders, determine how the leaders can increase the effectiveness of the teaching plan by:
   (a) analysing the present functioning of voluntary local leaders,
   (b) examining subject-matter solutions to problems from the standpoint of local leaders doing the teaching, and
   (c) inventorying potential leadership in the light of specific subject-matter to be taught.
19. *Extension workers,* jointly with local leaders in the village, select tasks that can be effectively performed by village leaders.

20. *Extension workers* guide the selection of local leaders for helping carry out specific aspects of the programme by :
    (a) being continually on the look-out for promising leaders for various functions,
    (b) providing opportunities for potential leaders to perform leadership functions, and
    (c) assisting local groups to make intelligent selection of local leaders by explaining the need for and function of leaders, outlining the qualifications of a good leader, and emphasising the desirability of expanding leadership participation.
21. *Extension workers* train local leaders adequately for the tasks they are to perform by :
    (a) making personal calls on leaders to outline plans,
    (b) conducting formal training meetings, and
    (c) following up the training given with letters, literature, and other useful material and suggestions.
22. *Extension workers* give public recognition to all local leaders selected to perform certain functions, and follow up with further recognition of those who perform effectively by (1) announcing selection and activities through bulletin-boards, meetings, and other media, (2) arranging for leaders to preside, or otherwise to have a prominent part in meetings, demonstrations, and other teaching methods, and (3) giving certificates of achievement or other suitable awards when deserved.

Conclusion

All organised educational efforts rest on the assumption that consciously controlled educational activity is the most educative. Consequently, people need leadership, stimulation and guidance from those who possess the ability to direct learning activity effectively. Extension teaching methods are the instruments available to professional extension educators for this task. The foregoing criteria for their use when properly adjusted and applied, should contribute to one's skill in the use of extension teaching methods.

Good extension teaching is the skilful creation of opportunities or situations in which people gain the stimulation and the abilities necessary to successfully meet their needs in such ways as to attain continuous self-satisfaction. As teaching

methods are made more effective, extension work becomes more successful in closing the gap between the prevailing conditions of rural life and what they should be. The great task of extension workers for Community Development is to help people gain a clear vision of what can and should be done, then to assist them with ways and means of attaining this condition. Extension teaching methods skilfully used provide tools for the task. The greatest thrill to an extension worker is to have a contribution to make and people who want that contribution made.

Selected References

Audio-visual Handbook for India. Edited by Donald F. Ebright, sponsored and produced by The Audio-visual Aids Committee, National Christian Council of India, The Diocean Press, Madras, 1955.

Audio-visual Materials and Methods. Brown, Lewis and Harcleroad, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1958.

Adult Education—The Community Approach. Sheats, Jayne and Spence. The Dryden Press, New York, 1953.

Cooperative Extension Work. L. D. Kelsey and C. C. Hearne, Comstock Publishing Associates, Ithaca, New York, 1949.

Communication and Persuasion. Carl I. Hauland, Irving L. Janis and Harold N. Kelley, Yale University Press, New Haven, Connocutt, 1953.

Diffusion Process. George M. Beal and Joe M. Bahlen, Special Report No. 18. Agricultural Extension Service, Iowa State College, Ames, Iowa, 1957.

Educational Sociology. Francis J. Brown, Prentice Hall Inc., New York, 1947.

Extension for Extension Workers. Earl I. Bacon, The Government Press, Trivandrum, 1959.

Extension Methods and Community Development in India. R. Dwarakinath, J. Srinivasamurthy, and P. Hanumappa, Department of Agriculture in Mysore, Information Booklet No. 6, 1959.

Extension Teaching Methods. Meridith C. Wilson and Gladys Gallup, Extension Service Circular 495, Federal Extension Service, United States Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C., 1955.

Extension Worker's Tools. Arjan Singh and Sardar Amrik Singh Cheema, Guide for Extension Workers, Series No. 2, Department of Agriculture, Pepsu, Nabha, 1953.

Fundamentals of Educational Leadership. C. A. Weber and Mary E. Weber, McGraw-Hill Book Co. Inc., New York, 1955.

Guide for Village Worker. Ministry of Food and Agriculture and the Community Projects Administration, New Delhi, 1955.

Guide to Community Development. Ministry of Community Development and Cooperation, Government of India, New Delhi, 1957.

Human Problems in Technological Change. Edited by Edward H. Spicer, Russell Sage Foundation, New York, 1952.

Informal Adult Education. Malcolm S. Knowles, Association Press, New York, 1950.

Methods of Agricultural Extension. International Agricultural Study Centre, Wageningen, The Netherlands, 1953.

Psychology in Teaching. Henry P. Smith, Prentice Hall Inc., New York, 1954.

Successful Teaching—Its Psychological Principles. James L. Mursell, McGraw-Hill Book Co. Inc., New York, 1954.

Teaching Agriculture. Carsie Hammonds, McGraw-Hill Book Co. Inc., New York, 1950.

CHAPTER XIII

TECHNIQUES OF CONDUCTING A CLASS

K. G. Bhandari

CLASS-ROOM TEACHING is one of the most important and effective means of imparting knowledge. It consists of a situation in which individuals come together to learn from a teacher. Learning in a class-room situation results from hearing, seeing, feeling and doing. Conventional class-room teaching has been in vogue in India from time immemorial. In olden days, sages, priests, *pandits* and *mullahs*, who were teachers by profession, conducted classes in the premises of temples, mosques or monasteries.

Basically, class-room teaching is a process designed to bring about learning. To be effective, it must follow acceptable educational principles.

Teaching is the process of attempting to change the behaviour patterns of people—of getting them to do, or think, or feel the 'right' things in the right way to reach desired objectives. The objectives may be to develop manipulative skills, technical knowledge, ability to solve problems, skill in handling people, changes in attitudes toward situations or to attain many other kinds of learning. Objectives are reached through the teaching–learning process. If they are to be attained, trainees must acquire new knowledge, new skills and new attitudes. In this Chapter are outlined some of the effective techniques of conducting a class and suggestions for applying them to class-room teaching.

Much learning is done by the trainee himself without specific help from anyone as an instructor. He watches other persons in action. He reads pertinent material. He tries things out by himself, makes some mistakes and achieves some successes. But usually, in this kind of situation, his efforts are put forth in a hit-or-miss fashion. He may attain his goal, but at great

cost of time and effort. He would usually reach it more quickly and more efficiently if his efforts are organised, if he proceeds in an orderly manner, if he has access to the right kind of help at the right time. Good class-room teaching provides such help.

Importance of Organised Teaching

The importance of class-room teaching cannot be minimised in the field of Extension Education, even though extension teaching implies out-of-school and outdoor education. The following are some obvious advantages of class-room instruction :

1. Congenial atmosphere can be created.
2. Adequate physical facilities can be provided.
3. Extraneous disturbances can be avoided.
4. Effective use of visuals can be made.
5. Essential teaching tools and equipment can be fixed in the class-room for use.
6. A good teaching–learning situation can be more effectively created in the class-room.

Extension teaching in recent years has assumed great importance in rural reconstruction or community development work, as an effective means of bringing about changes in the rural society for its betterment. Thus, class-room instruction has a definite place in extension teaching, particularly for training extension workers. Effective teaching in the class-room requires effective use of teaching methods and techniques, appropriate subject-matter and adequate physical facilities.

Experience has shown that human beings cannot be forced to learn unless a desire to learn has been created in them. Thus, the creation of a genuine desire to learn and proper environment for learning is the responsibility of the teacher. His teaching must result in effective learning. To promote effective learning, his techniques of conducting a class must be effective. Learning must be authentic, lasting and useful in life. Teaching methods that fulfil these needs can be termed effective techniques of teaching.

Every teaching–learning situation involves *five* basic factors : (1) teacher or instructor, (2) learner or trainee, (3) subject-matter, (4) teaching material and equipment, and (5) physical facilities.

1. Teacher or Instructor

The teacher in a class-room situation is the key element. On him largely depends the effectiveness of the instruction. He

must have clear objectives that are precisely and briefly stated. His knowledge of subject-matter should be authentic, up-to-date and well organised. He must have interest in the subject-matter and show enthusiasm in putting it across to his class. He should be able to communicate with the learners. His behaviour should be democratic and should encourage students to participate. Before facing a class, an instructor should be well prepared in all respects including a well thought-out teaching plan arranged into suitable and meaningful lesson plans. He should be friendly and courteous at all times. He should speak clearly so everyone can hear and should be skilful in the use of his teaching materials and equipment. As a teacher he should set a good example for his pupils.

According to many studies, a good teacher is one who :

has a thorough knowledge of subject-matter.
is patient,
goes out of his way to help people,
has no favourites,
is fair and considerate,
admits his mistakes,
does not get angry when asked to explain a point,
can explain difficult subjects in a simple manner,
does not control the class by fear,
has a pleasant and sweet manner of presentation,
has a sense of humour,
is cheerful,
encourages students,
is adaptable,
is sincere,
takes interest in students, and
is friendly.

A teacher should be dynamically alive and have a charming personality. Charming people are interested in other people's opinions ; they listen when other people talk ; they know and like human beings, cultured or not ; they feel the fundamental values of life ; they are happy ; they are not sorry for themselves ; they are not sarcastic. Charm is not a conglomeration of traits. All people have specific traits, but it is their symphonic arrangement that gives charm. In short, a charming personality, ability to deal with others and regard for teaching are some of the main traits that need to be considered besides the professional training and experience of teachers.

It is not possible to place a monetary value on the work of a good teacher. His services are largely of an intangible nature. It is not only in the economic sphere that a teacher's contribution should be judged. There are other equally important spheres. Since good teaching must accomplish desired changes in behaviour—knowledge, skills and attitudes—it is the teacher's foremost contribution to effect these desired changes in his pupils' behaviour. A good teacher inculcates in the lives of his pupils many qualities including good conduct, healthy habits, high ideals, sound morals, an optimistic vision of life, honesty of purpose, sociability, responsibility and a feeling of duty as a citizen of his country.

It is imperative that teachers continue to improve themselves professionally. A growing self is essential to good teachers. Improvement or growth of a teacher should be in three directions, namely, (1) learning needed subject-matter, facts, principles and practices, (2) development of ability to teach well, and (3) development of personal and social qualities.

Role of Satisfaction in Teaching

The importance of needed amenities in providing satisfaction to a teacher cannot be minimised. But it is not only the availability of amenities that is responsible for a satisfied state of mind. Satisfaction is a state of mind, and can be had even in the absence of a few amenities. It is mostly the result of mental attitudes and feelings in performing the job that gives satisfaction. Of course, a teacher should be provided with all needed amenities possible. Yet, he should be so absorbed in his work that he feels real satisfaction in the job itself rather than false satisfaction in physical amenities. In any event, the more satisfied a teacher is the better the performance he will give.

Dissatisfaction among staff members of a teaching institution because of the temporary nature of posts, lack of avenues for promotion, lack of free medical facilities, etc., has far reaching effects on good performance. Such inadequacies should not be allowed to exist and should be removed as quickly as possible. When one instructor has to influence hundreds of young men (being trained as village workers), and they in turn thousands of villagers, the problem becomes serious. No organisation, whether private or governmental, should take this question lightly; otherwise, the quality of training is bound to suffer and the programme will be affected adversely.

Puckett[1] in his *Report on the Second Two Years' Assignment with the Madhya Pradesh State* says :

1. No one can be a good teacher unless he believes firmly in what he is doing.
2. If a man is not happy and contented in his job, if he receives no inner satisfaction from working with youth, he will not be a good teacher regardless of how many amenities are offered by the State.
3. Those of the staff who are members of the 'school of measured effort' will never be good teachers and must be weeded out. A desire to teach and a pride of profession will go far to offset the usual reasons given for dissatisfaction.

Role of a Teacher as an Organiser of Learning

Human learning is a matter of human action and is as complicated as life itself. Scientific investigations have shown that various schools of psychology have contributed to education and some of the most important psychological principles concerning learning are as follows.

1. Learning is facilitated when there is a felt need on the part of the learner.
2. Learning is facilitated by meaningful repetition.
3. Learning is facilitated when two or more senses are used at the same time.
4. Learning is facilitated by active participation.
5. Learning is facilitated when conditions for it are real and life-like.
6. Learning is facilitated when the learner is in good physical condition.
7. Learning is facilitated by a cheerful and comfortable learning environment.
8. Learning is facilitated when it proceeds from the whole to the parts.
9. Learning is facilitated by interest.
10. Learning is facilitated when it is based on the readiness of the learner.
11. Learning is facilitated when it proceeds on the basis of the individual's own rate.

1. *George R. Puckett.* Report on the Second Two Years' Assignment with the Madhya Pradesh State 1956-58. Technical Cooperation Mission, New Delhi.

12. Learning is facilitated when it is based on the maturation level of the learner.
13. Learning is facilitated when it considers the basic needs of the individual.
14. Learning is facilitated when there is emotional stability.
15. Learning is facilitated by praise.

A teacher is essentially an organiser of learning. He has to be a good organiser of (a) his subject-matter and (b) of learners in a class. As a good organiser of his subject-matter, a teacher should know how to analyse it, organise it and place it before the class. To achieve this he must :

1. have clear objectives,
2. plan to organise teaching in small related meaningful units,
3. have latest authentic information,
4. have skill in guiding learning,
5. plan carefully and rehearse before presentation,
6. make judicious use of teaching aids, and
7. evaluate himself.

Besides these, a good teacher should have a mastery over his subject-matter and faith and ability to select suitable teaching methods for presenting it to a class.

As a good organiser of a class, the teacher should be democratic in behaviour. This does not mean a *laissez-faire* approach. It does not represent abdication on the part of the teacher. It is neither a teacher's advocacy of self-expression nor a complete freedom for pupils without regard for the requirements of others and without recognition of the necessity of technical advice from adults. Democratic behaviour includes decision-making as well as trust and giving of directions in a courteous way. Teachers who are friendly and permit initiative and cooperation evoke more satisfactory reactions from their pupils.

Learning is purposeful and must have some definite objective. The teacher should help the class discover this objective. Without a specific, clear, justifiable and attainable teaching objective, there can be no fascination in the teaching or in the learning. A good teaching objective :

1. is stated in terms of life situations,
2. represents a change to be brought about in behaviour,
3. is clear, definite and serves as a basis for selection of subject-matter,

4. is attainable,
5. can be evaluated, and
6. is related to the course of study.

"Confidence begets confidence" is an old proverb. The teacher should involve the learners in actual jobs. This serves two ends. The learner is able to learn how he can exploit his various faculties and get them 'sharpened' through practice.

Teachers should encourage initiative on the part of trainees. It has been experienced on various occasions that an individual with genuine intent to work and ability to complete his work successfully often fails to take the very first step for want of initiative. It is here that the teacher must help. He should spot out such learners and especially encourage them to take the initiative. This can be done through ways and means which only the teacher can decide. The following are some suggestions in this respect.

1. Talk with the learner and suggest ideas as if they are the learner's ideas.
2. Appreciate the ideas of the slow learner for whatever they are worth. They may be good, with some improvement.
3. Mention contributions made by slow learners to the class and have some of them discussed.
4. Provide incentive for the learners to take initiative.
5. Reveal to the group their weaknesses. Encouragement does not mean that the weaknesses of a group should be totally concealed. These should be brought to the notice of the group through democratic methods, discussions, assessments, questions and answers.
6. Control the class with love rather than with fear. It is in the environment of love that true human qualities grow. An environment of fear, anger and hatred is detrimental to human growth. The teacher should, therefore, create an atmosphere of love for the harmonic development of learners.
7. Establish proper rapport. There should be an active but frank and fearless interaction between the teacher on one side and the learners on the other, and it is the teacher who is responsible for creating this environment.
8. Encourage questions and answers. The question and answer method is the most useful for establishing

effective interaction between the teacher and the taught. This should be encouraged as much as possible.

2. Learner or Trainee

The learner is one of the active partners in the process of learning. He must be receptive and strive actively to learn. He should be capable of learning and should understand clearly the purpose of the knowledge he is to learn. Mere physical presence of a learner in the class-room does not promote learning.

He should :

(a) have a desire to learn,
(b) have need for learning,
(c) be interested in learning,
(d) feel that the learning will be useful to him,
(e) be willing to put up effort in learning, and
(f) feel satisfied after learning.

It is the job of the teacher to bring out and promote these qualities in a learner.

3. Subject-matter

The main objective of class-room instruction is to bring about desirable changes in the behaviour of learners. For this, the subject-matter should be authentic and up-to-date. It should satisfy the immediate and future needs of the learner. It should be properly arranged so that it follows in proper sequence. To do this, every teacher should arrange his subject-matter into a course outline and should prepare a good lesson plan for each topic. These are essential to any sound programme of class-room teaching.

Subject-matter not related to the needs of the learners should find no place in the teaching programme. To keep himself abreast of the rapidly accumulating facts about science and technology, the teacher must make free use of the latest text-books and reference materials. Lesson plans should, therefore, be revised frequently to assure current material at all times. A good library is a must for every educational institution. Criteria for judging effective subject-matter require that the contents must be :

(a) pertinent to learners' needs,
(b) applicable to real life situations,
(c) challenging, satisfying and significant to learners,
(d) well organised and logically presented,

(e) divided into small units of experiences,
(f) directed towards goals, and
(g) units related to each other.

4. Teaching Materials and Methods

To be effective, the teacher must use adequate tools like methods of presentation including audio-visual aids. Teaching methods are to the class-room teacher or extension worker what machines, wrenches, screwdrivers and hammers are to the mechanic. An efficient mechanic not only has the tools required for a given piece of work, but also knows how to select and use them. His effectiveness as a mechanic lies in his ability to do many complicated jobs. This in turn depends on his having access to the required tools and on his knowing how to use them properly.

For effective teaching, one must search for methods that will produce the desired results. Some methods are useful in getting opinions and ideas while others are better for presenting information material. To carry through a task the teacher should have the ability to select suitable methods for presenting the subject-matter and to choose the specific kinds of aids that will help attain his purpose. There are no short cuts to the selection of teaching methods and aids.

The following criteria may be useful for choosing a specific kind of teaching aid for a specific instructional purpose.

1. Does it fit the objective ?
2. Does it fit the age and intelligence of the learner ?
3. Does it fit the budget ?
4. Is it suitable for the size of the group ?
5. Does it fit the ability of the instructor ?
6. Does it fit the time available ?

Careful consideration of these criteria before selecting an instructional aid is essential to its effective use.

Effective teaching usually requires the use of more than one sense of the learner. The following are the major senses involved in learning :

A. Sense of seeing
B. Sense of hearing
C. Sense of doing
D. Sense of feeling.

The use of more than one sense usually increases learning. Hence, the use of teaching methods and audio-visual aids that

make possible the use of more than one sense of the learner is highly desirable. To do this, the teacher must:

(a) be skilful in the use of teaching aids,
(b) be able to select the most effective teaching aid, and
(c) remember that the teaching aid is for promoting learning and not for enjoyment.

It is in this broad setting that one needs to study the nature, selection and use of teaching materials and methods.

5. **Physical Facilities**

Physical arrangements of the class-room play a significant role in creating a congenial learning situation. The following physical facilities are the bare minimum for a good class-room situation:

1. The class-room should be neat and clean.
2. There should be sufficient light from all sides.
3. It should be well-ventilated.
4. It should not be affected by outside noise.
5. The temperature in the room should be as comfortable as possible.
6. There should be protection from dust or strong gusts of wind.
7. There should be sufficient space for accommodating the class. If possible, five to ten square feet of space must be provided for each trainee in the class-room, depending on the type of furniture provided.
8. The seating arrangement should be such that each trainee can be seen, heard and approached by the instructor easily.
9. The furniture in the room should be comfortable so that each trainee is able to sit conveniently and write.
10. There should be a raised platform (about six inches high) for the instructor so that he can be easily seen and heard by all the trainees.
11. The black-board should be fixed at a place from where each trainee can see every part of it.
12. There should be sufficient space for the display of visuals.
13. There should be arrangement for drinking water and also a lavatory nearby.

Steps in Conducting a Class

The major steps that should normally be taken in conducting a class are:

1. *The warming up or preparation step.* This step should arouse the interest of the trainee and help him recall certain knowledge on which the new learning is to be based and to which he can tie the new material.
2. *The presentation step.* In which the new material is presented to the trainee.
3. *The application step.* In which the trainee learns by applying the new learning to problems.
4. *The testing or checking up step.* In which the instructor checks up to make sure that the trainee has learned what was intended.

These four steps are usually found in all training situations, whether they be very informal, or very formal.

The Warming Up Step

The purpose of the warming up step is to get the trainee ready to learn. The principles of learning involved in this step are mainly: (a) the trainee learns when he is ready to learn, and (b) the trainee ties up the new learning with what he already knows. If learning is to be effective, the trainee must want to learn. The door to learning is "locked on the inside." Unless the trainee opens that door himself, learning doesn't take place. The instructor's task is to get the trainee interested, to get him to open the door, to help him develop a mind set-up favourable to learning. Often, the trainee already has an interest in learning the new material. But if he hasn't, the first task of the instructor is to get the trainee develop such an interest. This is done by showing the trainee how the new knowledge or skills will be useful to him, why they are needed and where he can utilise them.

A second phase of the warming up step is getting the trainee to think about things he already knows to which the new material can be tied. The trainee understands things better when they are explained so he can associate them with things he already knows that have some common or identical elements. The instructor gets the trainee to recall the previous learning by referring to things he already knows, or by asking leading questions which help him recall what has been taught. A review of the previous lessons which have a direct bearing on the new

material to be presented is an effective technique. When the warming up step has been carried out, the trainee is ready to learn. He has fresh in his mind certain experiences and knowledge with which he can associate the new things the instructor is ready to present.

The Presentation Step

The presentation step in conducting a class is that part in which the instructor lays the new material before his trainees. He does this largely by telling and showing and using all of the best methods. If the objective, for example, is to learn how to perform a specific operation, the instructor may tell how the operation is performed, show how it is done by still or motion pictures, or demonstrate how it is done by actually performing the operation. If the lesson is to develop the understanding of a technical principle, the instructor may outline clearly what the principle is, compare it with other principles known to the trainee and show how the principle is applied to practical situations with which the trainee is familiar. The choice of the method used by the instructor depends upon the nature of the material to be taught, the aim of the lesson, the ability of the trainee, the ability of the instructor and the equipment available.

In the presentation step, the instructor keeps in mind such principles of learning as (a) new impressions come through the senses, (b) trainees learn one thing at a time, (c) learning is more permanent if trainees understand what they are doing, and (d) trainees differ in ability and learn at different rates. He presents the new material so that the trainees use their eyes and ears and as many of the other senses as are appropriate. He deals with one aspect of the lesson at a time so that the trainees do not get confused. He helps the trainees develop understanding as well as knowledge and skill. He varies his presentation to appeal to trainees with different backgrounds and abilities. When the presentation step has been completed, the trainees should be ready to use the new knowledge and experiences gained in the next step, that of application.

The Application Step

In the application step, the trainees should have an opportunity to put into practice the new learnings they have acquired with the helpful guidance of the instructor. In the application step, the trainee performs the operation, solves the assigned

problem, carries out the practical, or discusses in the class the information presented. This step is the "doing phase" of learning a lesson. Often the trainee meets with difficulties in carrying out what he thinks he has learned and he makes mistakes. The instructor should watch the activities of the trainees, correct their errors and help them over difficult points.

In this step, the instructor should keep in mind such learning principles as (a) trainees learn by doing, (b) trainees develop skill through practice, (c) trainees differ in their ability to learn, and (d) satisfaction and other feelings influence the rate of learning. The instructor should see that each trainee performs the operation correctly and uses the right methods to solve problems. He should have trainees repeat their performance until a satisfactory level of accomplishment is achieved. He should recognise both the slow and the rapid learners and gear his assignments to their needs. He should sense the feelings of the trainees and help them get satisfaction from their learning efforts. Whenever necessary, he should review the material previously presented so that all the trainees become competent in its use.

At the conclusion of the application step, the trainees should have gained in knowledge, understanding, skills and attitudes. Usually they all need additional practice in their usage. This opportunity comes through additional training assignments and through the performance of the job.

The Testing Step

The final step in presenting a lesson is that of testing or checking up to determine whether trainees can carry through on their own and make use of the new learning without the help of an instructor. The testing step also provides a check on the instructor ; it determines how well he has done his teaching job. This step is accomplished through some form of test or examination. The trainee is examined on his accomplishment in the same general manner as a new ship is given a trial run. In the application step, the trainee is permitted to ask questions about difficult points. In the testing step the responsibility is entirely his own.

All the steps in the teaching process as outlined above are essential for every good teaching–learning situation. They may not appear as clear-cut formal steps, each distinct and separate from the others. Sometimes the instructor sees little need for motivation of trainees ; they are ready and anxious to learn. At

other times this step is a much-needed one. Similarly, the time and effort given to the other steps vary with the teaching situation. Generally, the steps are carried out in the order discussed here—warming up, presentation, application and testing. But frequently, the instructor discovers during the presentation step that the trainees are not sufficiently warmed up, so he returns to that step. Or, in the application step, he may discover that some of the new material was not presented with sufficient clarity for the trainees to understand it, so he goes back and teaches it over again.

Summary

Effective techniques of conducting a class involve the following major steps.

1. Creating harmonious or sympathetic relations with the learners.
2. Making the learners comfortable and willing recipients.
3. Stating the objectives of the lesson clearly, precisely and relating them to the goals of the learners.
4. Relating the topic to the previous teaching.
5. Dividing the class period into units as introduction, presentation, summary, question and answer time.
6. Deciding the best method by which the topic can be presented.
7. Presenting the material in simple, precise words.
8. Using methods of presentation that involve seeing, hearing and doing as far as possible on the part of the learners.
9. Summarising and high-lighting key-points.
10. Evaluating the learning to high-light key-points and to test the knowledge and understanding of the learners.

The following are some guide-posts that all good teachers find useful.

A. Prepare.

1. Have clear objectives.
2. Analyse and select the subject-matter.
3. Plan lessons.
4. Have teaching aids arranged.
5. Rehearse.

B. Present.

1. Introduction :
   (a) Greet students and put them at ease.

(b) Arouse group interest, proceed from the known to the unknown, and from the concrete to the abstract.

2. Explanation and demonstration :
   (a) Present material step by step, clearly, patiently, in logical sequence and in small meaningful units.
   (b) Stress important points.
   (c) Use examples, comparisons and contrasts.
   (d) Illustrate with appropriate visuals.
3. Helping students apply and assimilate material :
   (a) Involve the learners through questions and discussions.
   (b) Observe and correct mistakes.

C. *Summarise.*
1. Provide overall view-point.
2. Indicate strong and weak points.

D. *Evaluate.*
1. Use the question and answer method. Plan the questions.

E. *Give assignments.*

F. *Give authentic references for further study.*

Selected References

Extension in Rural Welfare. O. P. Dahama, Lashkar, Gwalior, 1958.

First Five Year Plan. Planning Commission, Government of India, New Delhi, 1952.

Preparation and Use of Audio-visual Aids. Hass and Packer, Prentice Hall, New York, 1955.

Principles and Methods of Guidance for Teachers.. C. Durnsmoon and M. Miller, International Text Book Co., Pennsylvania, 1955.

Report on The Second Two Years' Assignment with the Madhya Pradesh State, 1956-58. George R. Puckett, Technical Cooperation Mission, New Delhi.

Summary Record of the Fourth Extension Training Conference held at Mount Abu (29th May—1st July, 1957). Directorate of Extension, Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Government of India, New Delhi, 1957.

Successful Teaching—Its Psychological Principles. J. L. Mursell, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1955.

Teaching Agriculture. Carsie Hammonds, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York 1950.

CHAPTER XIV

VISUAL AIDS IN EXTENSION TEACHING

Robert R. Blake and Sybil Bates

THIS CHAPTER RELATES to the preparation and use of visual materials in extension teaching—materials which do not depend primarily upon the written word to convey their meaning. The Chapter is based upon the assumption that *all* teaching can be improved by the skilful use of such materials. Visual materials make learning more meaningful and more memorable.

The major ways by which people learn are seeing, hearing and doing—looking, listening and acting. Visual and audio aids offer the extension worker unique opportunities to increase the effectiveness and clarity of the ideas being transferred. They enable learners to see and hear, look and listen more fully and with greater understanding. To a large degree, the extension teacher's success—the degree of progress made by his learners—will be determined by his ability to communicate ideas. To achieve progress, he must communicate. His learners must understand.

The Value of Visual Aids

An old Chinese proverb says: If I hear, I forget; if I see, I remember; if I do, I know. This proverb suggests that hearing alone is not enough in the learning process. One must see and try to do along with the hearing in order to gain understanding. Telling alone, for example, is usually not enough to promote learning that results in action. The effective extension worker illustrates his ideas and demonstrates them in addition to telling his audience. Then he gives his learners an opportunity to tell and show what has been taught. This is a good way to check on how effectively one has communicated his ideas.

Research has shown that visual and audio-visual aids help a learner to:

1. Learn more.
2. Learn faster.
3. Remember longer what he has learned.
4. Learn more thoroughly.

Research has also pointed out other advantages of using visual and audio-visual aids in the communication process. They help :

1. The teacher to organise his teaching material in a systematic order.
2. Impress ideas more indelibly on the mind.
3. Vitalise and make teaching more real.
4. Picture experiences outside one's own environment.
5. Combat verbalism or unnecessary or a meaningless form of words.
6. Arouse and hold interest.
7. Attract and hold attention.
8. Stimulate and motivate action and thinking.
9. Change attitude or point of view.
10. Save time because they make learning easier.
11. Clarify ideas being presented.
12. Overcome the language barrier.

Visual and audio-visual aids offer teachers a fast, accurate, and direct approach to understanding on the part of learners. They give the teacher a reliable assurance that he is making his

Expression = Impression
Impression = Expression.

Understanding occurs when the minds of the learner and the teacher meet. When the teacher can make his expression equal impression or impression equal expression, the minds of the teacher and the learner meet and understanding occurs. Hence, visuals and audio-visuals are effective in bringing about a meeting of minds between the learner and the teacher.

Good visual and audio-visual aids, therefore, are good communicators. They help the teacher get his ideas across to learners. "The best way to a man's heart is through his stomach but the best way to his brain is through his eyes and ears." Some evidence indicates that 85 per cent of what is learned is through the eyes. Therefore, the use of visual aids in teaching cannot be overlooked. It must be pointed out, however, that the contents of the visual aids must be explained, if they are to be effective.

Planning and Selecting Visual and Audio-visual Aids

In planning for the selection of visual and audio-visual aids, three points must be kept in mind :

(a) Decide what you want to say and why it is important to say it.

(b) Outline the subject-matter point by point.

(c) Visualise the key points in the outline. Make aids, or select them from commercially prepared ones.

In making decisions about these matters, the following points should be kept in mind.

1. *There is no best teaching aid.* The situation determines which teaching aids to choose. An effective teacher recognises the fact that there is no best teaching aid. He is also aware that variety is the spice of life and familiarises himself with all the teaching aids available to him. When a teacher knows the characteristics of a variety of visual and audio aids he is in a position to select the aid or aids that he feels are the best for the particular situation.

2. *The teaching objective.* What are the changes in behaviour to be brought about ? One or all of the following will usually be involved : (a) learning a new skill or improving an old method, (b) gaining information and increasing knowledge, (c) changing attitude.

3. *The subject-matter to be taught.* A method demonstration, for example, may be the best visual aid to use in teaching a person a particular skill, whereas a motion picture may be the most effective way to teach a group about people in another land.

4. *The nature of the learner.* Consider the following.

(a) Age level of the learner.

(b) Educational level of the learner.

(c) Interest of the learner.

(d) Experience of the learner.

(e) Knowledge the learner has of the subject.

(f) Intelligence of the learner.

5. *Cost of the aid.* In addition to effectiveness the matter of practicability must be considered. Effective visual aids do not necessarily need to be expensive.

6. *The teacher.* The extension worker is the determining factor in the selection of visual and audio-visual aids. The following points influence his choice of aids.

(a) Familiarity with, and skill in using teaching aids.

(b) Originality and skill in the selection, preparation and use of aids.

7. *Availability.* An effective extension worker makes use of indigenous materials when the teaching aid he would like to use is not available. There are many teaching aids available if one takes the trouble, time and interest to find them and adapt them to his needs.

Guides in Selecting and Making Visual and Audio-visual Aids

1. *Consider the Audience.* The size of the audience will determine the type of teaching aid that will best suit the situation. Visual and audio-visual aids must be seen to be effective. Although a method demonstration is an effective device for an audience of 20 to 30, it is not suitable for a larger audience because to be effective it must be seen. Slide and motion pictures are more suitable for large audiences.

The level of understanding of the audience must also be considered if aids are to contribute to effective teaching. To present material below the level of understanding of the audience is as bad as presenting material above the level of understanding of the audience.

2. *The aid must be easy to see.* To be effective, visual aids must be easily seen. The term visual implies any thing that can be seen. A visual or audio-visual aid must be large enough for each member of the audience to see. It must also be so placed that it is visible to each member of the audience without any glare or obstruction.

3. *Easy to understand.* Effective aids to learning picture familiar everyday things. The words used are also in the local dialect. Use words that are simple and use as few words as possible to make the aid effective.

4. *Simple and direct.* The idea to be transferred should be made to stand out prominently. Use colour to give ideas that hit the eye. Leave out fancy curves, dots and dashes and frills.

5. *Easy to handle and transport.* Big bulky teaching aids are awkward to handle and difficult to transport. They should be made as light in weight as is possible. The size should be no larger than is necessary to fulfil their function.

6. *Key points.* Teaching aids should emphasise the key or main points of the lesson.

7. *Attractive and clean.* To be effective, visual aids should be neat and clean and colourful. Worn, frayed, and dirty teaching aids detract from the communication of ideas.

8. *Good working condition.* If visual and audio-visual aids are to make a contribution to learning they must be kept in efficient working order. Projectors that won't work, models with parts missing and other difficulties caused by inefficient planning and handling of visual and audio-visual aids lead to distraction and hinder the communication of ideas.

9. *Time and place.* A careful consideration of the time and the place where the aid is to be used should be made before using it. For example, it is embarrassing to go to a meeting for showing a film and find that electric power is not available.

From the view-point of appealing to the audience and encouraging people to acquire knowledge, visual aids must:

(a) Please the senses—not offend.
(b) Be accurate.
(c) Represent things that are common and understandable.
(d) Convey up-to-date ideas.
(e) Fascinate, intrigue and encourage action.
(f) Entice the viewer to eye your ideas, try your ideas and buy your ideas.

The Effective Use of Visual and Audio-visual Aids

There are a number of points that, when taken into account, will help improve the use of visual aids. Some of these are:

1. Plan well in advance of the time visual and audio-visual aids are to be used. Planning ahead helps anticipate problems and avoid them.
2. Make sure the aids are suitable for the size of the audience. Even the person at the back of the room must be able to see. Go to the back of the room and look at the visual aid to determine if it can be seen clearly.
3. Use a variety of colourful visual aids. They help change the pace of the presentation and help hold audience interest.
4. Prepare by rehearsing in order to make a smooth presentation.
5. A comfortable place is important. Make the place where the presentation is to be made as convenient and

comfortable as possible. A light, airy, attractive place is important to an effective learning situation.

6. Arrange your visual and audio-visual aids in sequence and place them where they can be reached conveniently.
7. Make sure that all aids are in good working order before the presentation is started.
8. Display only one aid at a time.
9. Present aids at the crucial moment.
10. Keep aids out of sight until ready for it.
11. Stand beside the aid, not in front of it.
12. Speak to the audience, not to the aids.
13. Remove all unrelated material.
14. Avoid any misunderstanding by discussion and application.
15. Test for good illustrative material:
    (a) Will it help achieve the purpose?
    (b) Will it give a true impression?
    (c) Will it stimulate imagination?
    (d) Will it add to the knowledge of the audience?
    (e) Will it focus attention on the main ideas?

Visuals for Personal, Group and Mass Teaching Situations

An extension worker has one main job. He must communicate information to people. How well he does his job is indicated not by the number of people he reaches but by the amount of change he produces in those he reaches.

Probably the most effective kind of extension work is done on a personal basis. This is where the extension worker visits a farm or a home to study problems and helps work out solutions. The personal approach is an effective way of solving problems since the solution can be clearly planned to meet the needs of each farmer or homemaker. However, the urgent needs in rural India demand that extension workers reach and influence many more people than can possibly be reached by the personal approach.

Many kinds of problems can be covered well in a group situation. This method brings together a number of persons who have similar problems or interests. Rat damage is an example of a common problem that can be effectively handled through group cooperation. Members of the group themselves can work out a plan of organisation and action.

But personal and group methods cannot reach everyone

who wants and needs information. So mass methods such as radio, newspapers, posters, exhibits, and printed materials must be used to reach large numbers of people quickly. These methods make people aware of new ideas. The amount of detailed information that can be passed on effectively through mass media is limited. They serve a useful function, however, in stimulating farmers' interests in new ideas. Once stimulated, farmers seek additional information from neighbours, friends and extension workers.

Visuals in Personal Teaching

Audio-visual materials have a vital place in each of the three methods of teaching; personal, group and mass. Suppose that a farmer sees a poster which urges farmers to cull their flocks for higher egg production. The farmer asks the extension worker for help. In such a situation, the need to catch some chickens should be obvious to the extension worker. There is a striking difference in appearance between a good laying hen and a poor one. It is possible to identify by appearance those birds that have been laying regularly. By comparing a good laying hen with a poor one, and pointing out the differences, the extension worker has used the best possible visual aid: the objects themselves.

Much teaching is done on this personal, impromptu basis. *Therefore, the extension worker should train himself to think visually and to learn to use objects and materials that are at hand.* Often, they are more effective than anything he can prepare.

Visuals in Group Teaching

In a group situation with the problem of rat control, for example, the following prepared visual aids should be considered. Where power is available, coloured motion pictures or filmstrips might be used. Either of these would explain how rats live and reproduce, show control measures and build up enthusiasm for an extermination campaign. If power is not available, enlarged photographs, flip books, flannelgraphs or other visual media could tell the story effectively and realistically. A trip to a clean rat-proof granary would show the group how rats can be kept away.

Visual aids used in group situations make it possible for people to study their problems together. It helps them

understand how problems can be solved through cooperative group action.

Visuals in Mass Teaching

Visual aids in mass teaching must be designed to create an awareness of an idea or to build interest in it. If the objective, for example, is to introduce a "Grow More Paddy" campaign, visuals should be used extensively.

Simple, attractive posters in large numbers at the right locations will call attention to new practices. Exhibits set up in the market place will serve as salesmen of the ideas. Photographs on bulletin boards and wall newspapers will carry the idea to thousands of people. Illustrated circular letters, leaflets and bulletins sent to municipal agricultural teachers and local leaders will be passed on to the farmers.

Kinds of Visual Aids and Suggestions for their Use

No single visual aid can be called the best one for extension teaching. Each kind has strengths and weaknesses. An understanding of these strong and weak points of each type of visual aid will help extension workers select the proper one for use in specific cases.

Tours and field trips. Tours and field trips are methods of teaching which appeal to man's desire to go places and see things. The things to be seen may range from results on a small demonstration plot to extensive application of new methods on big farms. The following suggestions will help extension workers plan a successful field trip.

1. Tours and field trips offer an opportunity to:
   (a) bring people to see a project in operation,
   (b) show the results and value of improved methods,
   (c) create an awareness of problems,
   (d) create interest and provoke action,
2. Decide exactly what you wish to accomplish. This will be determined by the tour audience, their interests, level of understanding and your evaluation of their need.
3. Work out a detailed plan for the tour well in advance. This should include sites to be visited, a time schedule for each stop, tour guides and hosts, transportation and other details.
4. Go through a rehearsal of the entire programme well in advance. This will help determine if time has been

properly budgeted. It will also serve to scout the entire route to see if there are obstacles either to walking or to vehicles.

5. On the day of the tour, keep the party together and keep it moving on schedule. Make the party as comfortable as possible. Provide drinking water and food if necessary.
6. Keep the group to a manageable size. One group leader can handle no more than fifty people. A small group permits more thorough discussion and is easier to control.

Pictures. Pictures are one of the most versatile and effective visual aids. In a photograph people can see, for example, what a new farm implement looks like. They can see the exact spot at which to vaccinate a chicken. They can see the steps necessary to build a new type grain storage bin. Pictures can be used in a personal teaching situation. They can be mass produced in leaflets and pamphlets or in newspapers.

Many good pictures are spoiled or lost through lack of proper care or storage. A filing system, perhaps according to subject-matter, will protect pictures and make them easy to find. Many excellent pictures can be found in official publications and in other magazines.

Photographs and other still pictures offer an opportunity to communicate with learners in spite of language difference. Photographs :

1. Speak a universal language.
2. Attract or compel attention.
3. Are easy to prepare or obtain.
4. Can be made of local things.
5. Can be used effectively by :
   (a) arranging them to tell a story,
   (b) showing the steps in an improved practice,
   (c) giving accurate details,
   (d) showing before and after results,
   (e) showing action and emotion.

Dust and Mud Sketching. In sand, dust or mud, nature has provided an effective and inexpensive visual aid. By using a stick it is possible to illustrate many different ideas. There is far less chance of misunderstanding if people can see what the extension worker is trying to explain. Dust and mud sketching can help visualise the lesson.

Chalk or Black-board. The uses for a chalk-board are limited only by the extension worker's imagination. The worker can summarise the main points of a talk, write down key words for emphasis, sketch diagrams of such things as irrigation systems or crop rotations, draw pictures of people or animals to add interest to a talk, develop a story or a lesson point by point. Some rules for the effective use of a black-board are:

1. Keeep it clean and well painted. Use a clean eraser. This means frequent washing and repainting it.
2. Make letters and drawings large enough so they can be easily seen.
3. Do not cover up the material on the board by standing in front of it.
4. Do not talk as you write. Talk to the audience, not to the board.
5. A chalk-board is not suitable for a complex drawing. Keep drawings simple and uncomplicated.
6. Do not put too much material on the board at one time. The chalk-board is a display, a showcase; clutter should be avoided.
7. Use coloured chalk for emphasis.

The black-board or chalk-board is the most universally used of all the teaching aids. It is one of the cheapest, most effective, most versatile and easiest to use of all the visual aids.

Flannelgraph. The appeal of a flannelgraph demonstration is that a progressive story can be unfolded before the learners' eyes. The action of the moving parts attract attention and stimulate interest. The flannelgraph can be of particular use with illiterates.

To make a flannelgraph board, a stiff backing material should be used. Heavy cardboard, plywood or softboard is satisfactory. The board should be at least 30 × 40 inches, and much larger if needed. A piece of flannel or *khadi* is stretched over the board and fastened on the back. The flannel should be light in colour for most uses. Light grey or light tan or green are good colours for the purpose. If the board is to be carried about it should be cut into two and hinged at the centre.

By pasting strips either of flannel or sandpaper to the backs of pictures or other instructional material, they can be made to cling to the flannel-board. The board should be tilted back slightly if material doesn't stick easily to the board. Some suggestions for use are:

1. The title of the story should be in large letters at the top of the board.
2. The story material can be drawings, photographs or printed illustrations.
3. Keep the story simple.
4. Use large, bold illustrations.

The flannelgraph is well adapted for telling many kinds of educational stories. Clever extension workers can place interesting pieces on the board, and keep the audience wondering how the story will end until the final piece is placed. Its capacity for building up suspense is the chief advantage in using the flannelgraph.

Charts. Charts can be used to present information in a graphic, easy-to-understand way. They are effective teaching aids because they:

1. make facts and figures clear and interesting,
2. emphasise relationships,
3. show size and placement of parts, and
4. show operational procedures.

Like posters and flannelgraphs charts should be:

(a) with bold lettering,
(b) brief in wording,
(c) simple in design and lettering,
(d) colourful,
(e) large enough to be seen.

Flash Cards. Flash cards are brief visual messages. They are used to emphasise important points in a talk. They are easy to carry and can be made easily and inexpensively from local materials. They should be planned to support the presentation step by step. They visually summarise the important points of the lesson that the audience should remember.

It is best to limit the number of cards to ten or twelve for any one talk. To plan the cards effectively, the extension worker should study his presentation. He then must select the main points he wishes to emphasise. A picture or drawing on each card will illustrate the point effectively.

For small groups, cards may be as small as 9 × 12 inches. For a group of 40 or 50 people, cards should be at least 22 × 28 inches. Colour has great attention-getting value and will add to the effectiveness of the flash cards.

Flash cards are like bill boards. They tell their message at a glance. Good flash cards are directly related to a topic

and designed to attract attention and motivate the observer to action or to change his attitudes. Effective flash cards:

1. drive home a single idea,
2. tell a story at a glance,
3. attract attention,
4. motivate action.

Flash cards are dynamic if they are:

(a) carefully planned,
(b) brief in wording,
(c) simple in design,
(d) colourful.

Posters. People look at posters the same way they look at other objects—trees, birds, houses, other persons. If something about the object catches his attention the passerby looks at it longer. The design and use of posters is based on the principle that a single glance may be all that the poster will get. Consequently, the message must be simple and clear. Posters cannot educate; they can only stimulate people to support an idea and to get more information about the idea. Some guides to their effective use are:

1. A poster should convey one single idea.
2. The wording should be brief—preferably not more than five words.
3. The illustration should show a vision of the idea in an unusual or dramatic manner.
4. The use of colour will help attract attention.
5. Lettering should be bold and simple.

Bulletin Boards. Many villages in India have yet to be introduced to their first bulletin board. Yet, this simple and inexpensive device can perform basic communication functions. A bulletin board can attract attention, stimulate interest, deliver a message and produce action. Items generally used on a bulletin board include photographs, cut out illustrations from publications, drawings, specimens, notices, posters and wall newspapers.

A bulletin board may be placed either outdoors or indoors. It should be placed where the maximum number of people will see it. A softboard that will hold pins or tacks is most suitable. If softboard is not available, either *khadi* cloth or coconut matting can be used.

The most common mistake made while using bulletin boards is to pack them so full of information that nothing stands out.

It is better to communicate one or two ideas than to confuse the audience and communicate nothing at all. Well arranged bulletin boards have one central theme, and everything on the board relates to that theme. Suggestions for use are:

1. Background should be of a neutral colour. Use bright colours to emphasise the message.
2. Use a dominant element to get attention. This could be a large picture or illustration, or large, bold lettering.
3. Don't put too much on the board. Blank space adds importance to the message.
4. Don't clutter the board with small illustrations and captions. Use fewer but larger materials.
5. Change material on the bulletin board regularly.

Display type aids including posters, bulletin board, exhibits, etc., are valuable because they:

(a) Create interest.
(b) Tell a story forcefully when used properly.
(c) Combine a variety of aids.
(d) Can be circulated as a self-explanatory unit.
(e) Are show windows of a programme.
(f) Display information and material of current interest.
(g) Present specific information and achievements.
(h) Give a preview or review of training.
(i) Drive home a single idea.
(j) Tell a story at a glance.

Models. Models are effective for communicating ideas because they:

1. Can be examined, handled, and operated.
2. Show how things look and operate.
3. Show relationships.
4. Simplify complex working parts or mechanisms.
5. May enlarge small objects for group study or, reduce large objects for easy manipulation.

Demonstrations. Method and result demonstrations combine many audio-visual aids. In presenting demonstrations the extension teacher often uses real objects, charts, specimens, models and pictures. Films and filmstrips are also used in giving demonstrations. Demonstrations are important in teaching because they:

1. Show step by step how something is done.
2. Lead to adoption of practices.
3. Can be given when and where needed.

4. Establish communication between learner and teacher.
5. Show by comparison results of using improved methods.
6. Show people and things as they really are.
7. Make things easily understood.

Motion Pictures. Projected aids such as motion pictures, slides and filmstrips have a great deal of audience appeal. Projected aids, however, have several limitations. Some of these are:

1. Special equipment is necessary to produce and use these visuals.
2. This equipment is relatively expensive.
3. Some sort of power is required to operate the projectors.
4. Transportation, maintenance and storage of equipment and materials require special consideration.

Despite these disadvantages, projected aids are potentially highly effective teaching aids. They have the potential to create powerful emotions. They can intensify the interest of the audience. For motivating an audience, for appealing to emotions, for a clear, concise portrayal of reality, few media approach projected aids.

It should be frankly stated that many extension workers do not always use the motion picture as a teaching tool. The motion picture is sometimes used as an entertainment device to draw a large crowd of people to a meeting. Other visual aids may then be used as instructional devices. If the extension worker uses a motion picture as entertainment, he should frankly admit this as a justifiable objective.

To use a film as a teaching aid, the extension worker must select the film with a specific teaching objective in mind. A film about the Ajanta caves should not be expected to help an audience learn about hookworm. In addition to the specific teaching objective the extension worker should consider the previous experience of the audience, and the age, education, interests, and cultural background of its members.

To do the best kind of job the extension worker should be thoroughly familiar with the film. He should know how the film supports the ideas he wants to get across. Before he shows the film he should explain the lesson, tell why it is important and stimulate the viewers to look for certain ideas in the film. When this procedure is followed, the end of the film is the signal for the beginning of a lively discussion and question period.

A successful film-showing depends upon looking after a number of details. An adequate power supply is necessary. A film show during the day requires a darkened room. A spare projection lamp should be on hand. Prior to showing the film the machine should be set up, the film threaded, focussed on the screen and tested. The projector should be high enough to project over the heads of the audience.

Filmstrips. A filmstrip is a series of still photographs, diagrams, drawings or letterings on a strip of 35 mm film. Perforated edges of the film fit over projector sprockets. Once adjusted to project the first frame, each succeeding image will be in focus and in proper position on the screen. When audience participation is desired, projection can be paced at a speed suitable to the speaker. When accompanied by a carefully prepared script or talk, new ideas can be presented forcefully and dramatically.

Filmstrips are light, easily stored, and condense much information in a small package. Filmstrips and filmstrip projectors are much less expensive than motion picture films and projectors. The same rules that apply for using motion picture films apply to filmstrip use.

Filmstrips and other projected aids are important teaching aids. They are of value because:

1. They arouse interest and change attitudes.
2. They present facts in an interesting way.
3. They show a new practice in a short time.
4. They reach illiterate as well as literate people.
5. They show a complete process in a short time.
6. People identify themselves with those in the picture.
7. They project pictures for a large audience.
8. They overcome limitations of time and space.

Audio Aids. The record player, tape recorder and radio are some of the commonly used audio aids. They are useful because:

1. They influence a change in attitude.
2. They report spot news or accomplishments.
3. They can extend the voice of a well-known person or a person of authority.
4. They create and stimulate interest in programmes.
5. They can be used to reproduce information in regional languages or dialects.
6. They can be used as direct teaching aids.

Illustrated Literature. Newspapers, circular letters, pamphlets, leaflets, folders and fact sheets are included in illustrated literature.

Illustrated printed material plays an important part in Extension Education, especially if the material is well illustrated. Illustrated literature may be used to:

1. Attract attention.
2. Aid demonstrations or lectures.
3. Supplement films and other projected aids.
4. Help retain interest after the lecture or demonstration is over.
5. Give a complete and accurate step by step procedure for doing a task.

Conclusion

In the preceding pages, a wide variety of visual aids has been discussed. These were chosen because of their particular use in extension training.

The preparation and use of visual aids requires planning and care. Visual teaching is not an easy way of teaching. It does, however, make learning more effective and more interesting.

The need for technological change in today's world is a great challenge to extension workers. Visual aids can help meet this need. They can help:

1. *Overcome language barriers*. Even where the extension teacher and learner speak the same language, there are language barriers. Visuals are a universal language.
2. *Reach more people*. Visual aids permit the extension worker to bring learning to more people in less time. He can use his skill and knowledge to produce visual aids that may reach thousands of people while he can personally see only a few.
3. *Make learning faster*. When people understand things, they learn faster and remember longer. Visuals make understanding clearer and explain ideas in a universal language.
4. *Make learning real*. Words alone may not convince people. People believe what they see. When visuals are used to show people new practices, they are more convinced than when words alone are used.

5. *Reach many people at low cost.* When the cost of visuals is figured on a per-person-reached basis, it is low, as the same visuals can be used many times.
6. *Adapt teaching to local conditions.* Visuals can be locally produced to fit local conditions. Visuals suited to the people and to the available materials can be made locally.

Selected References

Audio-visual Materials and Techniques. James S. Kinder, American Book Co., New York, 1950.

Audio-visual Methods in Teaching. Edgar Dale, Dryden Press, 1957.

Encyclopedia of Educational Research. Walter S. Maurae, The Macmillan Co., New York, 1950.

Effective Use of the Black-board. Audio-visual Section, USCOM, Costa Rica.

How to Make Effective Posters. Audio-visual Section, United States Technical Cooperation Mission, New Delhi.

Guide for Village Worker. Ministry of Food and Agriculture and Community Projects Administration, Government of India, New Delhi.

Healthy Village. UNESCO Monograph, Columbia University Press, New York, 1951.

Process and Effects of Mass Communications. Wilbur Schramm, University of Illinois Press, 1955.

Teaching Without Money. Audio-visual Section, United States Technical Cooperation Mission, New Delhi.

Using Visuals in Agriculture Extension Programmes. International Cooperation Administration, National Project in Agricultural Extension, East Lansing, Mich.

CHAPTER XV

SYLLABUS, COURSE OUTLINE AND LESSON PLAN

M. P. Singh

THE EXTENSION TEACHER trains his pupil to be an educator who in turn motivates village people to adopt improved farm and home practices for better living, either directly or through village leaders and local institutions. It is important that extension trainees understand the basic principles of extension and put them into practice. Since extension is fundamentally a system of 'out-of-school education,' it is obvious that extension teachers cannot rely on traditional methods of training. They have to reorient their teaching methods and strike a balance between class-room teaching, practicals on the campus and outside and work in villages so that the trainees emerge not only as effective guides of villagers but also with an understanding of the programme and plan of work based on the needs of village people. These objectives can only be achieved if the instructors plan their teaching in a systematic manner.

Teaching primarily involves choosing (a) the content, or what is to be taught and (b) the method and technique of communication. It is with these two aspects, *viz.*, the organisation of the content or subject-matter and its presentation with which the instructor is concerned in the study of the syllabus, and in the preparation of course outlines and lesson plans.

Syllabus—its Meaning

Syllabus literally means something taken together or an abstract giving the heads or outline or scheme of a course of lectures, teaching, etc. For practical purposes, it is almost synonymous with the course of study or curriculum. The word curriculum has a latin origin. It means a run-way or course which one runs to reach a goal. According to Cunningham, "it

is a tool in the hands of the artist (teacher) to mould his material (pupil) according to his ideals (objective) in his studio (school)."

For determining any particular course of study, it is first essential to understand clearly the objectives of teaching. Determining the objectives is the most fundamental of all the processes involved in the framing of a syllabus and in teaching it. Teaching objectives, particularly in vocational or pre-vocational subjects, should be stated in sufficient detail to serve as a broad base for selecting a course of study. In the context of the training of Gram Sevaks and Gram Sevikas, there are at least three objectives which must be attained. These are:

1. To help the trainee acquire a content of useful knowledge which he is expected to communicate to the villagers with whom he works.
2. To develop in the trainee an understanding of the methods of transmitting knowledge, encouraging participation of people in the programme and local initiative.
3. To develop in the trainee a high morale and instil in him a deep sense of mission for village development.

It is obvious that in the formulation of a syllabus or a course of study, these objectives have to be kept in view and a proper balance attained for best results.

A course of study includes the kind, amount and organisation of the content in keeping with the objectives of teaching. In the organisation of the content the amount of time to be used and when it is to be used are also considered. In other words, the course of study embodies teaching objectives, time assignments of selected content, and the means or methods to be used in teaching. Thus, in essence, it includes the outline of subjects in which knowledge and training—in theory and practice—are intended to be imparted in a given period. It embodies the guiding points on the subject included to meet the basic requirements of the various aspects of the training course. Accordingly, the components of the syllabus are so determined and organised as to contain relevant information with respect to the intended training. It is, therefore, essentially a means to an end.

Role of the Syllabus

A syllabus should serve the following important functions:

1. It should serve as a blue-print both for the instructors

and the students, supplying information about the training to be imparted.

2. It should help the instructors to know the content of the course in more precise terms in order to enable them to plan their instructional programme in advance, and to anticipate the needs of the learners and their own in the shape of reference material, teaching aids, supplies for practicals and other requirements.

3. It should bring uniformity in the standard of teaching, working and procedure of training with, of course, such regional adjustments as are necessary so that ultimately the training centres are able to produce extension workers having a basic understanding of the Community Development Programme and a common goal and purpose to fulfil the needs of the rural community.

4. It should indicate the priorities and weightages to be given to specific items in different subjects to be dealt with during the training period.

5. It should prescribe procedures for examinations to test the knowledge of students at the end of a course.

Factors to be considered in Formulating a Syllabus

In planning a syllabus, the following major factors should be used as guides.

1. *The purpose for which the course is to be offered, its aims.* The first requirement in formulating a course of study is to have a clear concept of the purpose the course is intended to serve. It has to meet the needs of a particular group of students. It is not that the course has to be worked out first and then the students fitted to it. The students and their needs are a central factor in building a course. In the training of Gram Sevaks and Gram Sevikas, it is obvious that the content and organisation of the syllabus should depend upon the role of these functionaries. The Gram Sevak or any other extension worker should have the following qualities.

(a) An understanding of the rural people, their aspirations, attitudes and reactions, and the social and cultural set-up in which they live. He should thus have a basic understanding of social sciences.

(b) The knowledge and understanding of the basic principles and problems connected with rural life. He

should be able to help village people solve these through their own effort.

(c) A basic knowledge of all the subjects touching rural life with emphasis on agriculture, the field for which he has to devote 80 per cent of his time.

(d) The knowledge and understanding of the various extension techniques and methods of approaching people and effectively communicating ideas and skills so that the village people may ultimately adopt them with a view to improving their standard of living.

Any course of study developed for these functionaries should take into account the needs and requirements as indicated above.

2. *The characteristics of those who are to take the course.* The trainees, their interest, background and experience should be kept in view in building a course. It must be realised that the course is for the students and they have to be trained towards worthy economic and social ends. The following considerations are important in this respect. Is the material too elementary or too advanced and technical for the trainees ? Will it suit their knowledge, abilities and attitudes ? Is it suited to their age group ? All of these factors should be kept in view in drawing up a course of study. The subjects and activities contained in the syllabus should develop in the trainees initiative and power of observation, investigation and problem-solving.

3. *Educative environment of the trainees.* This includes all the surroundings of the students that influence their learning. The class-room, library, farm, livestock, equipment, etc., are all parts of the educative environment. The region in which the students have ultimately to work and the local conditions which they are likely to face should also help determine the content of the syllabus.

4. *Use of information available.* While framing the syllabus it has also to be ascertained whether sufficient information is available on the subject which is intended to be taught. Results of experiments and demonstrations, opinions of experts, practices followed by others must be checked up to see if adequate knowledge exists on the subject under consideration.

5. *Flexibility.* The syllabus should be flexible and adjusted to the needs of the trainees at every stage. It should be dynamic so that it may be in harmony with the changing economic and

social conditions. An elastic syllabus is based on areas of study rather than on common subjects.

6. *People's need and interest.* A good syllabus must also be suited to the needs of the community which is to be served. The larger interests of the people should be reflected in the syllabus and those subjects included which are of help in making the trainees intelligent members of society, interested in its present progress and hopeful about its future.

Syllabus as a Guide for Organising the Instructional Programme

For the extension worker's purpose, curricula are more valuable when learning experiences relate the basic sciences and technical subjects to farm, home and community situations they will encounter after employment. It is, therefore, essential that effective use of the syllabus is made in formulating outlines for class-room and field instruction. The syllabus should not be followed rigidly or mechanically, but should be so organised as to enable the trainees to grasp the idea and the content of the subject-matter quickly and thoroughly within the allotted period. Various items in the syllabus should be taken up systematically so as to ensure the maximum integration and continuity in the training programme. The following considerations may be kept in view while formulating the instructional programme on the basis of the syllabus.

1. The three aspects of the instructional programme, *viz.*, class-room instruction, practical training at the campus, and extension work in the field, should be followed in a logical sequence.

2. The procedures and methods employed in the training should be so devised as to result in maximum learning.

3. The programme of institutional training should be so developed as to take advantage of seasonal activities in the field.

4. The institutional training should be supplemented with planned visits to villages for field extension work. In other words, an understanding of the basic knowledge in a subject-matter field should be followed by acquisition of skill needed for the transmission of the knowledge to the people.

5. A coordinated programme of work of various departments such as agriculture, cooperation, *panchayats*, animal husbandry, etc., should be taken into consideration while formulating the teaching programme so that the trainees have a clear

understanding of the necessity of implementing a coordinated and integrated programme in the field.

Keeping the above considerations in view, the following is an analysis of the present syllabus for the two-year training programme of the Gram Sevaks showing how it can be effectively used as a guide for use in organising the instructional programme. The two-year course provides for teaching the following subjects:

1. Agriculture I—soil management and agricultural engineering.
2. Agriculture II—crop husbandry.
3. Horticulture and plant protection.
4. Animal husbandry.
5. Cooperation.
6. *Panchayats.*
7. Public health.
8. Social education.
9. General, including extension principles and programme planning.
10. Minor engineering works.
11. Rural industries.

The position of each subject in order of priority in the syllabus is as follows:

Subject		*Percentage of periods allotted*
1. Agriculture	..	37
2. Animal husbandry	..	14
3. Cooperation	..	10
4. *Panchayats*	..	7
5. Public health	..	9
6. Social education	..	7
7. General, including extension principles and programme planning	..	6
8. Minor engineering works	..	3
9. Rural industries	..	7

These priorities should be kept in view in determining the time to be devoted to each subject in theory, practical and extension work in villages and should form the basis of preparation of a time-table.

There are two ways of arranging a course of study. One way is to arrange for certain subjects to be taught exclusively in the first year and others in the second year. Thus, an institution may find it convenient to teach only farm crops, soils or other

subjects in the first year, and some other subjects like animal husbandry, cooperation, *panchayats*, etc., in the second year. The other system may be termed as the cross-section type. In this, all the topics in a subject are taught together in both the years—something of a subject every year. It may be desirable to follow the latter system particularly in the case of those subjects which stand high on the priority list, and those which stand low on the list can be finished in one of the two years. But this again depends on the teacher. He must clearly distinguish for himself the merits and demerits of the system and adjust his teaching accordingly.

It is generally agreed that factors like season, programme of work in different fields in the Blocks, local conditions and problems existing in the area should determine to a large extent the arrangement of the course. After having decided the arrangement of the courses to be taken up in each of the two years, the content to be covered each year should be determined in relation to the time available. The teacher may first decide on the number of teaching days he wants to utilise in completing his course and then check up against the time available. If the time available is not enough, certain adjustments in the content and time, keeping in view the objectives, may have to be made. The teacher can then plan the distribution of time, month by month, and also decide the sequence in which the topics will have to be covered in each month by preparing a course outline.

Course Outline

A syllabus is merely a classified list of topics from which courses can be made; it does not provide an outline for a course of instruction. It is for the teacher to design a course outline from the syllabus in order to meet the specific needs of the students. For efficient and purposeful teaching, the instructors have to plan an effective course outline in their particular subjects.

A course outline is, in fact, a systematic split-up of the subjects included in the syllabus into convenient units to be covered within a specified period. An effective course outline takes into account the jobs, the seasonal and local requirements, proper weightages and priorities to be given to the different items included under the subject, and the logical sequence in which the material is to be presented.

The primary objective of preparing an effective course outline is to provide for the trainees, in an accurate and logical sequence, the learning experience, *viz.*, knowledge, skill and attitude that they need for the effective discharge of duties. Thus, it is helpful in better organising the teaching programme, collecting the needed material in advance for teaching and in presenting the material in a systematic and planned manner. A course outline is, in fact, the skeleton on which the whole mass of teaching rests. The need for the preparation of a course outline in any training programme can, therefore, hardly be overemphasised.

The preparation of a course outline involves a thorough study of the syllabus. The syllabus which has been drawn up for the two-year course for Gram Sevaks indicates weightages to different subjects in terms of allocation of periods. It does not, however, indicate the sequence in which the topics under each subject are to be covered. For instance, 210 theory periods and 120 periods for camp practicals have been allotted to the subject "Agriculture-II—crop husbandry." While the break-up of the theory periods under this head is suggested in the syllabus according to the importance of the topics, no break-up for practicals is suggested. It is left entirely to the instructors to fix the same according to the needs.

The break-up of the 210 theory periods allotted to "Agriculture-II" is as follows :

1. Elementary climatology	..	15
2. Plants	..	14
3. Seed	..	8
4. Field crops	..	84
5. Crop rotations	..	11
6. Mixed cropping	..	8
7. Multiplication of improved seeds	..	14
8. Seed stores	..	8
9. Storage of farm produce	..	5
10. Crop planning	..	14
11. Demonstrations	..	14
12. Crop competitions	..	5
13. Estimation of crop yield	..	10
Total	..	210

It will be seen that 84 periods out of 210 are devoted to the field crops. However, a further break-up indicating the time

to be devoted to the study of individual crops such as paddy, maize, *jowar, bajra,* wheat, barley, etc., has not been suggested and it is left to the instructor to decide which crops should receive importance and which ones should not be dealt with so intensively, keeping in view the local conditions. The sequence in which the crops are to be taken up for study and the weightage which the teacher is going to give to the study of these individual crops should be indicated in the course outline.

Thus, while the syllabus broadly indicates the subjects and topics included in the two-year training course and the relative emphasis which should be given to these, the preparation of a course outline enables the instructor to decide the sequence in which the topics should be covered and the weightage and priority to be given to individual items included under a topic in view of the local conditions.

For preparing an effective course outline, the instructors should possess the following qualities.

(a) Understanding of the educational processes.

(b) Knowledge of people and an understanding of their problems.

(c) Competence in their field of specialisation.

(d) Skill in communication and in working with people.

(e) Capacity to continually examine and improve their teaching methods.

The following considerations may be kept in view in formulating a course outline.

1. It should be planned well in advance.
2. It should meet the needs and interest of all members in a particular class.
3. It should be related to the actual situations in which the trainees have to work.
4. It should take into account the knowledge of the trainees, their previous background and experience.
5. It should be based on seasonal requirements.
6. It should indicate the weightage and priorities to be given to different topics in a subject.
7. The topics should be arranged in a logical order to provide for maximum learning experience.

The following procedure may usefully be followed in preparing a course outline.

1. The relevant portion of the syllabus should be studied thoroughly by the teachers concerned.

2. A meeting of the teaching staff should be held at the training centre to discuss the syllabus and the outline of courses. The Block staff including some experienced Village Level Workers should be associated with the meeting. The following points may particularly be considered during this meeting.

(a) The jobs which the Gram Sevaks or Gram Sevikas are expected to do in each field of activity.

(b) Whether the content of the subjects included in the syllabus prepares the Gram Sevaks and Gram Sevikas for their job in the field.

(c) Whether more emphasis on any particular item or items is necessary in view of the local conditions.

(d) Whether the balance between theory and practical work is correct or needs any modification.

3. The total allotment of periods, or time required for class-room lectures, camp practicals, field practicals, study trips, village extension work and periodical evaluation in a particular subject should be decided upon during the meeting and adjustments made between various subject units if required.

4. The course should be broken down into annual and monthly schedules.

5. Priorities and sequence of different items under a topic based on seasonal needs and local conditions should be fixed.

6. The course should be divided into (a) lectures, (b) camp practicals, (c) field practicals and (d) village extension work.

7. Periods should be allotted for each of the above items.

8. The course outline should be flexible to permit of any amendment on the basis of subsequent experience.

9. The course should also be periodically reviewed in consultation with the Block staff, progressive farmers and the trainees themselves to make amendments, if necessary. This will make the course outline more effective and useful, as illustrated on the next page.

COURSE OUTLINE (ILLUSTRATION)*

Subject: *Animal Husbandry*

	Theory	Practical: Camp	Practical: Village
Total number of periods	135	70	50

Sl. No. according to syllabus	Month	Topics and periods allotted: Theory — Topics	Periods allotted	Practical — Topics	Periods allotted	Village work — Topics	Periods allotted	Assessment	Remarks
10/B	November	Development of fisheries in villages and the difficulties involved and how to solve them.	2	..	..	..	..	Oral test (difficulties)	
10/C		Paddy-cum-fish culture.	1	..	..	How to rear fish in paddy fields.	1	-do-	
11/G		Symptoms, diagnosis and treatment of Rinderpest.	3	Vaccinating cattle against Rinderpest.	2	Vaccinating at least 10 cattle per trainee against Rinderpest.	2	Practical test	
3/h		Purchase of animals with *taccavi* loan, precautions to be taken in their purchase. Observation of the progeny of animals purchased with *taccavi*.	1	Practice in filling up of forms of *taccavi* loans for purchase of animals and maintenance of two records.	1	Observation of progeny of animals purchased with *taccavi* and study of their records maintained.	1	Practical test	
1/d		Control measures against pneumonia and worms in goats.	2	How to administer medicines in pneumonia and worms.	2			Practical test	

* From the Guide-book developed by Instructors of Extension Training Centres and Home Science Wings at the All India Work Seminar, Hyderabad (June 1-12, 1959).

Lesson Plans

After the course outline has been drawn up, the next step is to draw up a plan for teaching, which may be called preparation of lesson-plan. Experience has shown that a lesson is not merely a means of doling out facts. "It can be an occasion for learning, for thinking, for understanding—it can provide generous scope for the self activity of the pupil directed, guided and stimulated by the teacher."[1] A good teacher has to carefully plan his instructional programme for maximum educational attainments. The following three considerations largely determine the success of a lesson.

1. Preparation of the subject-matter by the teacher.
2. Effective presentation of the subject-matter to the class.
3. Self-effort on the part of trainees in learning what is presented to them.

The lesson notes prepared by the teacher fully indicate the steps which he intends to follow in his teaching. "A lesson plan, therefore, is a statement of the aims to be realised and the specific means by which they are to be attained as a result of activities during the period the class spends with the teacher."[2] A lesson plan consists of flexible arrangements, procedures and methods of action for achieving educational objectives which the teacher considers to be desirable.

Value and Necessity of Lesson Planning

A lesson plan is needed for the following reasons.

1. It ensures a definite objective for each day's work.
2. It ensures association between various lessons in the same main unit, the selection and organisation of subject-matter and materials.
3. It enables the teacher to know the most desirable types of teaching methods and to prepare tests for judging the outcome of teaching. It also helps him to have up-to-date knowledge of the subject-matter because he has necessarily to review it in preparing the lessons.
4. It prevents waste of time because it helps the teacher to be systematic and orderly.

1. K. Bhatia and B. D. Bhatia. *The Principles and Methods of Teaching*. Doaba House, Delhi, 1956.
2. *Ibid.*

5. It provides continuity in the teaching process.
6. It gives the teacher a sense of confidence.

Prerequisites of Lesson Planning

The preparation of good lesson plans requires the following qualities on the part of teachers.

1. Thorough knowledge of the subject-matter.
2. Awareness of the various principles of teaching and learning.
3. Awareness of individual differences among the students.
4. Understanding of the knowledge of the topic the students already possess.

Essential Elements of a Good Lesson Plan

The following are the essential elements of a good lesson plan.

1. A good lesson plan should be written.
2. Objectives, both general and specific, should be clearly stated.
3. The lesson plan should clearly show relationship between what has been taught before and what is to follow.
4. The materials of instruction should be well selected and organised.
5. The plan should indicate teaching techniques to be used in the presentation of a lesson, such as what questions are to be asked, what illustrations are to be used.
6. It should include the 'doing' or 'practice' assignments to create confidence and conviction in the mind of the student about new skills and knowledge.
7. The plan should indicate all the aids that are to be used for a particular lesson.
8. It should indicate the reference material used.
9. It should include evaluation exercises.

Steps in Preparing a Lesson Plan

Before preparing a lesson plan, up-to-date information on the subject should be reviewed. This will involve consultation of books, bulletins, magazines, etc., that will enable the teacher to be well informed on the subject. The preparation of lesson plans involves a good amount of thinking, arranging training

situations and practice in doing the job. A lesson is often thought of as comprising the following four steps.

1 *The preparation step.* In this step an effort is made to arouse the interest of the trainees and enable them to recall their present knowledge on which new learning is to be based—knowledge to which they can tie up the new material. The purpose is to get the trainees ready to learn.

2. *The presentation step.* In this step the new material is presented to the trainees. It is done best by telling, showing and doing. The following principles should be kept in view while presenting the new material.

(a) New impressions come through senses.

(b) Trainees learn one thing at a time.

(c) Learning is more permanent if the trainees understand what they are doing.

(d) Trainees differ in their ability to learn.

3. *The application step.* In this step the trainees learn best by 'doing' in their efforts to apply the new knowledge. The following principles should be kept in view for this.

(a) Trainees learn by doing.

(b) Trainees develop skill through practice.

(c) Satisfaction influences the rate of learning.

4. *The testing or checking up step.* In this step the instructor makes sure that the trainees have learnt what was intended. This also provides a check for the instructor to determine how well he has done the job and ways to improve instruction.

Any plan of teaching usually includes all the four steps indicated above.

The following illustration will show the essential elements which should go to make a good lesson plan.

LESSON PLAN (ILLUSTRATION)*

1. *Class*—*V.L.W.* 1st year
2. *Subject*—Horticulture
3. *Topic*—Vegetative propagation
4. *Periods allotted*—Four

* From the Guide-book developed by Instructors of Extension Training Centres and Home Science Wings at the All India Work Seminar, Hyderabad (June 1-12, 1959).

5. *Objectives*—
   1. To equip the trainees with the practical and theoretical knowledge of vegetative propagation in fruit trees.
6. *Previous background of trainees*—
   Trainees possess the knowledge of seed propagation and have a vague idea of vegetative propagation such as by a cutting.
7. *Materials to be used*—
   1. Charts showing methods of propagation.
   2. Models.
   3. Materials and equipment such as: (a) budding and grafting knife, (b) tree branches, (c) *sutli*, pot soil, and (d) gunny bag pieces.
8. *Steps in presentation of the topic*—

Subject-matter	*Method*
A. *Introduction.*	
(i) How plants propagate—sexual and asexual or vegetative.	Lecture with discussion. Use of charts.
(ii) Advantages of vegetative propagation over seed propagation. (a) Uniformity in quality of fruits. (b) Early fruiting. (c) Dwarfing of trees. (d) Protection from root diseases. (e) Increased adaptivity.	-do-
B. *Presentation of new subject-matter.*	
1. Type of vegetative propagation— (a) Natural { Rhizomes, Suckers, Runners (b) Artificial { Rootage, Buddage, Graftage	Use of charts showing different methods of propagation. Lecture to be followed by practical demonstration on dummy branches.

(i) Rootage { Cutting / Layering / Air layering }

(ii) Buddage { Shield budding / Patch budding / Ring budding }

(iii) Graftage *Attached* Inarching

Detached { Saddle grafting / Wedge grafting / Side grafting }

2. Precautions to be taken at the time of operation—
   (i) See that the plant is in sappy condition. — Lecture followed by discussion.
   (ii) Scions and stocks are adaptable to each other.
   (iii) Buds and grafts should be tied properly.
3. Listing of different fruit trees with the methods followed for their vegetative propagation.
4. Limitations of vegetative propagation—
   (i) A few fruit trees cannot be propagated vegetatively, e.g., papaya.
   (ii) With some fruit trees the methods of vegetative propagation are complicated and costly.

C. *Application.*

Trainees will be asked to perform cutting, budding and grafting work on dummy branches in the beginning. Subsequently, they will be asked to perform vegetative propagation by cutting, budding and grafting—a few each in the orchard.

D. *Model questions for testing.*

1. Why vegetative propagation instead of seed propagation?
2. What are the precautions to be observed at the time of preparing a cutting?
3. What is the difference between attached and detached grafting?
4. Name the stock plant used for budding oranges.

9. *References*—

1. Fruit growing in India by Hayes.
2. Fruit cultivation in South India by Naik.
3. *Phalon ki Kheti* by N. D. Vyas.

It need hardly be emphasised that the preparation of a course outline and a lesson plan, so essential for any systematic and effective teaching, requires hard work on the part of the instructor. He has not only to be thorough and up-to-date in his subject-matter field but must also possess a basic understanding of the extension educational processes. His task and purpose is to create situations that produce effective learning experiences. This is a challenge facing everyone engaged in extension teaching. It can partly be met by systematising the instructional programme and following a carefully prepared plan of teaching.

Selected References

Art of Teaching. G. Highet, Vintage Press, 1954.

Criteria for Evaluating Course of Study Materials. Teachers' College Record, 39, 1937.

Curriculum Construction. Eugene, General Extension Division, Oregon State System of Higher Education, 1951 (Mimographed).

Curriculum Foundations for Paradise Valley. Curriculum Bulletin No. 81, 1949.

Determining the Objectives of a Curriculum Unit in Unit Planning in Business Administration. Fifteenth year-book, Eastern Commercial Teachers Association, Hartford, Connecticut, 1942.

Fads, Frills and Fundamentals—Bases for Curriculum Improvement. Curriculum Bulletin No. 71, 1950.

Planning for Teaching and Introduction for Education. W. Richey, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1952.

Principles and Methods of Teaching. K. Bhatia and B. D. Bhatia, Doaba House, Delhi, 1956.

Successful Teaching—Its Psychological Principles. L. Mursell, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1956.

Supervision of Curriculum Planning and Development. Curriculum Bulletin No. 110, 1952.

Teaching Agriculture. Carsie Hammonds, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1950.

Teaching—a Psychological Analysis. C. M. Fleming, Metheun Press, 1958.

Teaching Vocational Agriculture. E. W. Garris, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1954.

CHAPTER XVI

MAKING PRACTICALS EDUCATIONAL

G. S. Baweja and K. G. Bhandari

THE TRAINING OF the Village Level Worker is no easy task, especially in view of the constantly changing pattern of rural economy which makes varied demands on him. It is not enough to tell a Village Level Worker trainee how to do a thing or to show him how to do it. Unless he actually performs the task while under training, which may be a field operation, solving a rural problem, or leading a group discussion, he may not be able to acquire mastery over it. Practicals in Extension Training Centres provide him with this opportunity.

Practicals relate to the acquiring of manipulative skills and abilities. They are a form of supervised practice. The most important aspect of practicals is that they involve doing a job to acquire the necessary competency. Just as theory is 'know-how,' practical is 'do-how.'

Theory classes and practicals are the two most important aspects of any training programme. Both are essential for effective learning and are complementary to each other. One may know the theory of a subject but may not be able to apply it in practice. Likewise, one may be able to use the technique skilfully, but still be superficial in one's efforts to teach the same to others for want of a proper understanding of the related theory. No doubt people learn faster by doing, but there is a place for theory in every educational activity. A happy synthesis of both is ideal. While theory takes one to the threshold of learning, practicals open the door to learning.

The fundamental principle of Extension Education is that people learn through seeing, hearing and doing. Research has revealed that people remember ten per cent of what they hear, 20 per cent of what they see and hear, and 70 per cent of what they see, hear and do.

A Village Level Worker has to perform specific jobs in order to help people help themselves. The training imparted to him should, therefore, include the maximum number of practicals which involve his direct and active participation. If too much of time is devoted to class-room instruction, Village Level Workers will not be able to deliver the goods in their field assignments. It is not enough to teach them the know-how and the skills, but they must be taught how to apply the newly acquired knowledge and skills in practical situations. This can best be done by means of practicals.

As educators, Village Level Workers have to influence the actions of people so as to initiate desirable changes in people's behaviour, outlook and actions. In the villages, they neither have the facilities of a class-room, teaching equipment and material, nor a homogeneous group of cultivators with academic background. The most effective method they can adopt for teaching, therefore, is demonstration. It is through both method and result demonstrations that the maximum number of cultivators learn of the new practice and adopt the same. But before a Village Level Worker is in a position to teach the villagers, he must first have a thorough knowledge of the specific jobs he has to perform, because 'he cannot teach others what he cannot do himself.'

Practicals provide the Village Level Worker trainees with opportunities to understand the problems of the villagers and to develop confidence in helping the villagers solve their problems. Practicals present effective learning situations to support lectures and are necessary to impart to the Village Level Workers manipulative abilities, skills and self-confidence which are essential for effective extension work.

Objectives

If instruction is to be effective, its objectives must be clear-cut, so as to be clearly understood and accepted by the instructor and the trainees alike, as otherwise practicals may prove to be mere labour assignments or a routine operation that keep the trainees busy. A lack of clear and valid objectives is probably more responsible for poor teaching than any other single factor. Objectives stated clearly in sufficient detail serve as a basis for the selection of the subject-matter.

The specific objectives of a practical should be such that they are easily achieved within the resources available. They should be expressed in terms of knowledge, skills and attitudes as follows.

Knowledge. Knowledge is intimate acquaintance with facts. It is the information one has acquired which can be called upon for use in various situations. Understanding is comprehension of the meaning of things, the ability to interpret situations. It often includes the cause and effect relationships, and how and why events are related to each other.

Educational practicals should impart the knowledge of:

1. important facts and information about people and problems in the rural area,
2. simple improved methods of farming, animal husbandry, health and sanitation, crafts, village industries and home living,
3. principles and methods of programme development, and
4. good extension methods.

Skill. Knowledge without understanding is not very useful. One can memorise words or symbols, but they are not of much value unless they are understood. One can learn a manipulative process, or develop a mental skill, but if one does not also develop the understanding of the process or skill, one cannot utilise it when new situations arise. The trainee must learn the 'why' as well as the 'what' and the 'how.' He may learn how an operation is performed, but unless he knows why it is done, he may run into trouble when he has to perform the operation under different conditions.

Skill is ability in action. It is competency in using knowledge effectively. Manual skill involves proficiency in the handling of implements and tools, machines and materials. Technical skill involves the use and application of technical knowledge.

Educational practicals should develop the following skills in the trainees.

1. Skill in applying the principles of psychology and education to extension teaching, supervision and administration.
2. Skill in organising people and developing leadership among them.
3. Skill in conducting meetings and discussions.
4. Skill in locating leaders and working with them.
5. Skill in demonstrating simple improved methods of farming.

6. Skill in facing and analysing new situations and solving existing village problems.
7. Skill in organising, encouraging and presenting basic, economic, social, technical and scientific data.
8. Skill in applying the resources to village life.
9. Skill in developing the understanding, technique and process of evaluation of the extension programme.

Attitudes. Attitudes are emotional reactions usually expressed as feelings towards or against something. They often imply the direction of potential action.

The question is often asked whether it is possible to teach and develop different attitudes. No doubt people acquire most of their attitudes unknowingly. However, attitudes may be acquired intentionally and taught by the teacher in keeping with the principles of learning. A person can be taught new attitudes and tastes as he can be taught facts and skills. Attitudes can be developed or learnt by properly understanding the objects associated with them. Attitudes are important determiners of learning. It is futile to try to develop abilities in students in the absence of favourable attitudes. Sometimes, attitudes have more influence on learning than does the intelligence of trainees. It is, therefore, important to instil the proper attitude in the future Village Level Workers while they are under training. With a proper attitude, a Village Level Worker will find his job most rewarding and satisfying. Listed below are some of the attitudes which practicals should develop in a Village Level Worker.

1. Sympathy and affection for villagers.
2. Desire to work with villagers for their improvement.
3. Willingness to listen to ideas and opinions of others.
4. Respect for villagers' ideas.
5. Desire to involve people in programme planning and execution.
6. Conviction that his future is linked with the welfare of the people.
7. Conviction that all villagers are capable of developing into useful citizens.
8. Belief that his habits and life can set an example for villagers.
9. Confidence in his ability to do the job he is trained for.
10. Satisfaction from seeing people taking up improved practices.

Planning of Practicals

To make practicals educational, they should be properly planned and organised, as aimless, spiritless and unplanned activity does not provide effective learning experiences. Before a plan is prepared, it is desirable that the objectives are properly understood and accepted by both the trainers and trainees. In preparing the plan, it will be imperative to design practicals in such a way that the trainees acquire the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes to do their jobs effectively and enable them to solve the specific problems they are expected to face in the villages.

In planning a programme of practicals, the important abilities to be developed in the trainees should first be identified. Sometimes, the objective of a particular course is only the acquisition of specific knowledge without its application. Sometimes, the objective is the development of the understanding of the basic principles. Again, the goal may be the development of attitudes. In any case, the instructor must definitely know what he is aiming at, and chart his course in the direction of the desired goal.

The Training Centre staff should first meet and work out an overall plan for the institution. In such a meeting, the instructors can be mutually helpful in developing the general as well as individual plans. This will also help in avoiding unnecessary duplication. If possible, the Block staff, some progressive cultivators and successful Village Level Workers should also be invited to participate in the discussions. They will help make the plans more realistic.

First of all, a plan of practicals for a particular subject should be prepared for the entire course. This may further be divided into yearly, seasonal, monthly and weekly plans. It will be desirable to split the plan on a daily basis.

While planning practicals, the physical resources and the time and funds available should be kept in mind. The equipment required for conducting each practical should be obtained and checked up well in time. It is necessary to make extra arrangements for the transport, boarding and lodging of the trainees in the case of practicals conducted outside the campus. Similarly, it is important that the concerned people are informed of the programme well in advance. The details and objectives of such practicals should always be explained to the trainees before conducting the practicals.

The plan for practicals should not be a rigid one, but should be elastic enough to accommodate any unforeseen circumstances.

Organisation

Organisation refers to arranging things in a proper relationship. The theory of a subject should always be explained to the trainees before practicals in that subject are conducted. Similarly, while organising practicals, other aspects should be considered. Study trips should preferably be planned in the slack season, whereas indoor practicals can profitably be conducted when the weather is inclement. During summer, the practicals on the farm or in the villages should be conducted during the cooler part of the day, and library and class-room assignments should not follow immediately after hard manual work. The trainees should not be expected to undertake strenuous practicals with empty stomachs or soon after heavy meals.

While planning and organising practicals the following points should be kept in mind.

1. A practical should not be aimless, spiritless and meaningless.
2. Without problematic aspects, practicals will result in mere work.
3. Practicals should not be given merely as labour assignments.
4. Practicals should not be conducted to mark time.
5. Practicals should not be conducted just to serve as a stop-gap arrangement.
6. Practicals should not be used as a sort of punishment or imposition.
7. Practicals should not be carried on beyond desirable limits.

To overcome these undesirable practices, each instructor should prepare a plan of practicals in his subject. Such a plan will enable him to pursue practicals in a systematic and methodical way. It will also furnish a valuable record of practicals conducted and will help discover deficiencies for future adjustments. A suggested form for planning practicals is given below.

Planning and Operation Sheet for Practicals

1. Training Centre..........................
2. Class ....
3. Subject..........Total periods allotted............

S. No.	Date	Topic	Time allotted	Type of practical			Material and equipment required	Instructional aids to be used	Assignments library or other literature	Remarks
				Laboratory	Field	Village				

It is necessary for the instructor to visit villages and analyse the jobs and problems of the Village Level Worker in terms of the new knowledge, skills and attitudes he needs, and then provide for practicals suited for the purpose. For example, if a Village Level Worker has to introduce a new practice in the village, he himself must first achieve proficiency in that practice. A series of practicals having direct bearing on that particular practice will help him in acquiring the necessary skill.

Selecting and Classifying Practicals

While selecting practicals, the following considerations should be kept in view.

1. Practicals should present the best learning situations.
2. They should be correlated to theory and should supplement the knowledge already acquired by a trainee so that he may get the necessary confidence and ability to do the work independently.
3. They should help a trainee acquire the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes.

To ensure that practicals satisfy the above conditions, it is necessary that they should be job-related and problem-oriented. A series of practicals should become a project of purposeful activity that results in useful education.

Practicals can be classified into three broad categories: 1. laboratory practicals, 2. farm practicals, and 3. village practicals.

These three types of practicals have more or less the same objectives and should be selected according to the learning situation they present.

Village practicals are not mere repetition of what has been done in the laboratory or on the farm, but have special significance. They provide opportunities to the trainees to use the knowledge and skills exactly in the same situation in which they will be working later. Village practicals give them a job experience while still under training, and villages serve the purpose of a laboratory.

Some of the specific village practicals are method and result demonstrations, castration of bulls, construction of improved latrines, *panchayat* elections, organising of cooperative societies, recreational activities, etc. It is very important that village practicals are conducted under the supervision of an instructor, even though the trainees have done the job on the farm.

The following are some important aspects of village practicals :

1. Establishing contact with cultivators
2. Recognising village problems
3. Getting information
4. Analysing facts
5. Reaching decisions
6. Planning and organisation of work
7. Acquiring necessary knowledge to execute jobs
8. Execution of plans, etc.

Before undertaking village practicals, it is necessary to fix a time and place, make arrangements for equipment and supplies and notify the farmers concerned.

Village work, or job or apprentice training means a series of village practicals in which the Village Level Worker trainees meet people and discuss with them their problems, needs and aspirations with a view to finding out proper solutions.

In conducting village work, each instructor should be in charge of a group of trainees, and should also supervise the work relating to his subject of the other groups. In addition, he should look after the execution of the entire programme in a specific group of villages.

The actual schedule of village work should not be a rigid one. The number of visits, their frequency and time intervals should be determined according to local conditions. It is desirable not to send trainees for any village work during the first few months of their training. They should be gradually introduced to this work by the instructors with the assistance of the Block staff. After they have achieved a certain amount of

proficiency in field work, they should then be asked to undertake village work independently. Village work helps the trainees to move into their job with a minimum of difficulty or hesitation.

Conducting Practicals

The various steps involved in conducting an educational practical in an Extension Training Centre are enumerated below. These steps are intended to be suggestive and tentative, rather than conclusive.

1. *Collect all the information needed.* Before conducting the practicals, the instructor should collect from the various sources all relevant information on (a) results of experiments and research, (b) results of trials and demonstrations, and (c) the practices followed by the progressive farmers.

2. *List equipment and material needed.* It would be necessary to prepare a complete list of materials and equipment required in the process of conducting the practical. This will enable the instructor to make the necessary arrangements to procure the various items needed for the purpose.

3. *Check up the equipment.* Sometimes the equipment needed for conducting a practical is available but is not in working condition. It is, therefore, necessary for the instructor to thoroughly check up and ensure that all the equipment is in a working order before conducting the practical.

4. *Define objectives.* Each practical has one or more specific objectives. To help the trainees achieve these objectives, it will be necessary to define and explain the same clearly to the trainees well in advance.

5. *Explain the procedure.* The procedure to be adopted for conducting a practical should be explained to the trainees, step by step, in simple terms. These steps should follow logical and psychological sequence. It may even be necessary to demonstrate certain steps.

6. *Emphasise key-points.* Each practical has certain key-points. These must be brought to the pointed attention of the trainees, so that they leave a lasting impression on their minds.

7. *Demonstrate the process.* All that was explained by way of procedure to the trainees should now actually be demonstrated to them. It is only by demonstration that trainees will develop the necessary ability to conduct practicals successfully. If necessary, it should be repeated.

8. *Create proper atmosphere.* Instructors can only teach, but it is for the trainees to learn. It is, therefore, necessary to create an atmosphere conducive to maximum learning during practicals. There should be proper seating arrangements and light in the place where practicals are conducted.

9. *Provide for repeated practice.* Skill is developed through practice. Mastery is achieved only by correctly performing a task over and over again. This is true for both manipulative and mental skills. Provision should be made in the course outline for sufficient repetition of assignments to achieve the necessary skill. This may mean more practice for some trainees than others. All should continue to repeat the task until the required standard is achieved.

10. *Ask the trainees to keep records.* Human memory is likely to fade out in due course. It is, therefore, necessary that a record of all that is done during a practical is maintained by the trainees. This record serves as a ready reference for the trainees during their work in the field.

Supervision of Practicals

It is recognised that the principle of practice operates in the case of undesirable learning just as it does in the case of desirable learning. If the activities of the learner are to result in the largest amount of desirable learning and the least amount of undesirable learning, these activities should be properly supervised.

While supervising, the instructor should closely observe each trainee, and guide, help and evaluate him. He should locate weak points in the trainee and help him remove them. The instructor should not assume the role of a supervisor getting manual work done by the trainee. But by personal example he should demonstrate the dignity of labour. He should not act as a task master but should be patient and sympathetic. If the teacher works with faith and sincerity and dedicates himself to his job, the trainees will often emulate him.

The following are the specific advantages of supervision.

1. Supervision provides the teacher with an opportunity to direct the activities of the students so as to avoid undesirable learning.
2. It improves the quality of performance and develops in the teacher confidence and the ability of evaluating results.

3. It helps to avoid errors and wrong practices, thereby eliminating chances of failure.
4. It enables the teacher to teach to individual trainees those things which cannot be handled in a class by group or individual instruction.
5. It enables the teacher to give special guidance to weak students.

Evaluation of Practicals

Effective teaching helps the trainees acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes so that they are understood, remembered and used. Evaluation is a way of determining what has been actually accomplished in this respect. Good teaching requires evaluation or testing of the learning of students as a basis for further improveing the teaching programme. It is, therefore, necessary to ascertain a student's progress towards acquiring the specific learnings intended. A teacher cannot intelligently continue to formulate his teaching plan and teaching procedures and select his teaching material without evaluation. He cannot direct his teaching towards overcoming learning difficulties unless he knows where they exist. Nor can the student know whether he has fully attained his learning objectives.

If the teacher is to guide the students, he must be able to find out what the students have learnt, what they have failed to learn and what factors are responsible for the same. A teacher who evaluates learning gets a clear idea about his ability to teach, and is able to improve upon his teaching.

The following are the three steps in evaluating practicals.

1. Clarify objectives, so as to have a precise understanding of what is to be assessed.
2. Devise valid, reliable, simple, workable methods for collecting and recording data.
3. Use these methods for recording the data and interpret the results.

Some specific methods by which practicals can be evaluated are as follows.

1. Record of practical achievements
2. Survey of results and attitudes
3. Follow-up visits
4. Objective tests
5. Interviews and observations

6. Observations of daily work
7. Anecdotal records.

Conclusion

Practicals present better learning situations in which theory can be applied effectively in real life situations. Every practical must have well-defined specific objectives, only then can it be educational and result in desired learning. Practicals should not be conducted to pass time, or to make the trainees work.

Practicals must be properly planned and organised because meaningless, aimless and spiritless activity does not lead to learning. The plan of practicals should be drawn up jointly by the instructors and the Block staff. Successful Village Level Workers and progressive farmers should also be associated with the drawing up of the plans. The selection of practicals will be determined by the role the Village Level Workers are expected to play in the field. It will also depend upon the specific needs and objectives to be achieved. Village practicals deserve special emphasis in extension training because they afford opportunities for applying knowledge and skills exactly in the same life situations in which the Village Level Workers will be later on placed.

To make practicals educational they should be properly conducted, their various steps following a logical and psychological sequence. The principle of practice operates in gaining undesirable learning just as it does in gaining desirable learning. Supervision is, therefore, necessary to assure correct procedures and the maximum amount of desirable learning. By supervising the work of the trainees the instructor is in a position to spot out the weaker ones among them requiring extra attention. While supervising, the instructor should not act as a boss and give commands as if he was there only to get manual work out of the trainees.

Evaluation of practicals is necessary to determine what has been actually accomplished. Without this, a teacher cannot intelligently formulate his teaching plan and procedures. By evaluation the teacher can easily spot out the weaknesses in his teaching and remedy them.

Since people learn most by doing a thing, the training imparted at the Extension Training Centres should be pivoted around practicals.

Selected References

Developing Professional Leadership in Extension Education. J. Paul Leagans, Extension Publication No. 3, New York State College of Agriculture, Cornell University, New York, 1958.

Experiences and Observations in Extension Training. M. D. Fox, T.C.M. India, New Delhi, 1954.

Experiment in Extension—The Gaon Sathi. Allahabad Agricultural Institute, Oxford University Press, 1956.

Extension (Vol. I, No. 3, 1956; Vol. 2, No. 2, 1957; and Vol. 2, No. 1, 1958). Directorate of Extension, Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Government of India, New Delhi.

Handbook on Extension for Extension Workers of Kerala. Earl. I. Bacon, Development Department, Trivandrum, 1959.

Gram Sevak's Guide for Increasing Agricultural Production. Douglas Ensminger, Ministry of Community Development and Cooperation, Government of India, New Delhi, 1958.

Guide-books Developed at the All India Work Seminars. Directorate of Extension, Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Government of India, New Delhi, 1959.

Report on the Third Assignment in Punjab and Northern Regions. John T. Bulls Jr., T.C.M. India, New Delhi, 1958.

Report on the Second Two Years' Assignment With Madhya Pradesh State. George R. Puckett, T.C.M. India, New Delhi, 1958.

Teaching Agriculture. Carsie Hammonds, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1950.

Village Extension Work. Douglas Ensminger, *Indian Farming,* Vol. 2 (New Series) Nos. 5 and 6, 1952, Indian Council of Agricultural Research, New Delhi.

CHAPTER XVII

EXTENSION EDUCATION IN HOME SCIENCE

Ellen L. Moline

HOME SCIENCE, the science of the home, has the overall purpose of improving homes so that the families living in them may lead a more abundant life. Home science deals with human values—moral, social, aesthetic, economic and physical. These are values most families respect within their family circle, their community, their nation. The relationships involved within these values are a part of the study of home science. Home science is concerned with creating a healthy family atmosphere which is the best medium in which respect for others can grow—respect which is the best guarantee for a stable family, community, nation and world situation.

Effective home science does not deal with crafts as a major subject, but deals with education through which desirable changes are brought about in family living. It lays emphasis on scientific findings and skills related to the home and the family, and on the understanding of the sound scientific principles and their application in various situations. Learning to make decisions and choices based on an understanding of the principles involved is a very important part of home science education. Making permanent changes in the thinking of the members of a family is fundamental for home science. Housing, foods available, size of family, ways of earning a living, cultural patterns and other variations in areas and regions require emphasis on principles.

The four main fields of home science—home management, child care, clothing, food and nutrition—cannot make the needed impact on family living unless they are related to the health, and agricultural, psychological and sociological aspects of the family, community and nation. An understanding of the inter-relationship of each of these home science subjects and factors helps

families develop richer, fuller and happier lives. The duty of each home science teacher is to instil this knowledge into the minds and hearts of those who are to work with families in the 5,50,000 villages of India.

New Social Era

When the Community Development Projects, the planned programme for improving village living, were started in India in 1952, they did not include women workers. But, in 1955, the first centres were opened to train women workers who would go into the villages and work with the rural families to improve their living to fulfil the broad objective of the Community Development Programme.

The broad objective was: to assist each village in planning and carrying out an integrated, multiphased family and village plan directed toward (1) increasing agricultural production; (2) improving housing and family living conditions; (3) improving existing village crafts and industries and organising new ones; (4) providing essential health services and improving health practices; (5) providing educational facilities for children and an adult education programme; and (6) providing recreational facilities and programmes for women, children, youth, and men—the total family.

How to fulfil the objective, dealing with the improvement of family living, was a challenging question. Home science trained women were few. Institutions engaged in training home science students were not only few but had very limited capacities. A new area of study and work with the resultant cultural change slowly began to develop.

Gram Sevikas trained in Home Science Wings began to apply the theory and skills learned to practical situations in their own village homes and in the homes of village home-makers with whom they worked. The Gram Sevika, a paid woman worker, who came to help village women improve their family living began the silent revolution of bringing about change through a new kind of education.

Widows, married and unmarried women working in strange villages after they had been educated puzzled village women. Why did they come to work in villages? Were they working for pay? Who got the pay—could they keep it for themselves? Didn't they want to marry, have a husband and children? Could they plant rice and harvest it? How did they know about children

if they had none themselves? If they never had a mother-in-law how did they expect to tell others how to get along with one? Questions like these were answered honestly and fearlessly, giving facts where needed. Questions which could set the questioners thinking were answered in such a way as to set them thinking.

New horizons opened to the instructors of the Home Science Wings, to the Gram Sevikas and to the village home-makers through knowledge gained and spread by Extension Education in home science practices. A new era began. The spark which lies buried in every mother's heart to have something better for her family began to be fanned into a blaze.

Getting Accepted by Village People

Because at first the woman village worker is a stranger, difficulties often arise in the initial stages of her work. She is not a part of the cultural pattern of the village. She doesn't belong to the village, she is unprotected because no male members of her family are around. She is educated and she works for money. Because of these conditions, getting accepted by village people is the first problem she faces. At first she will be under suspicion.

Getting accepted can be made simpler if proper preparation is made for the arrival of the Gram Sevika. The Block Development Committee should be informed of her arrival. The Committee should have time to consider the best village in which she can live, and discuss her arrival with the *Sarpanch* and with other men and women village leaders. The woman village worker should meet the Block Development Committee and talk to the *Sarpanch* and leaders so that they can be acquainted with each other. Some time should be allotted for the Gram Sevika to spend at the Block headquarters to become acquainted with the officers of her Block, the problems of the area, the facilities available to help solve the problems, and the lay people willing to discuss village problems with her.

Tentative arrangements for a place for her to live in should be made by one of the Block officers. The Block Development Officer should take her to the villages to introduce her to the members of *panchayats*, village women, and to her co-worker, the Gram Sevak, if she has not met him before.

The Gram Sevika should be assured that she is one of the team of workers helping build better homes, better communities, and a better nation. This will give her confidence. She will

not feel lonely if she knows she has the support of others working in the Block, regional, state and national offices and can obtain guidance from them. Acceptance by the village people will come only after they become fully acquainted with her. Embarrassing and personal questions will have to be answered honestly and without hesitation. Suspicion will gradually give way to confidence as the Gram Sevika shows through her conduct, ability, willingness to learn and to share that her interest is only in the welfare and happiness of the family.

Village Home Making

The village home-maker's work is not confined to the four walls of her home. Not only does she care for the family, but also for the farm animals. During the periods of intensive agricultural activity, she has to do her full share of work in the fields without giving much time or thought to her normal household duties. Preparations for festivals and ceremonies take up much of her time when she is free from agricultural work. In planning work with village home-makers, all this must be taken into consideration.

The patterns of home-making now being followed have been acceptable for generations. Rather than attempting to change any one habit completely, it is better to attempt adaptations or slight alterations within that habit. Acceptance often comes faster when suggested changes are not made too abruptly. Recognition of the need for changes must come first from the village home-makers. Making them aware of the needs is a big challenge. When a home-maker says "we need," then real progress has begun.

Of what needs are the women aware? They may say, "My child is not well. What can I do?" This question may involve many inter-related subjects. It may involve health, mother-craft, food and nutrition, or clothing, or knitting, or kitchen gardening. Perhaps the child has a cold as a result of not having a sweater or the right kind of food. Knitting a sweater or planting tomatoes in the kitchen garden, a papaya or a lime tree in the courtyard may all be a part of meeting the home-maker's stated need.

It is necessary for a Gram Sevika to have thorough knowledge of the following areas.

Clothing. Making a simple frock, a child's pyjama or shirt, a blouse, or a shirt for an adult, teaches her the skill of cutting and

sewing needed garments. Making them fit well has a great prestige value. A little embroidery on the garments can be the artistic touch needed to satisfy aesthetic needs. The study of clothing involves a choice of the garment to be made and of the correct cloth for making it. When there is a limited amount of money to be spent, making that money go far is very important. Recognising good quality cotton, wool, silk, or rayon materials is essential. Purchasing good quality wool for making sweaters, for example, means the sweater wearing longer and saving of money.

Learning to correctly wash a garment, depending on the fabric from which it has been made, means longer life for the garment and greater savings from it. Mending a garment as soon as the need for mending it is indicated, and particularly before washing, adds months of service to it. Making new garments from old ones results in great saving. A child's frock or small pant can be made from the back of a man's shirt. A blouse can be made from the usable parts of old *saris*. Ability to see the uses of old garments and to cut and sew them properly means that a few more garments can be had for the family. During the time clothing is not in use, storing it properly away from insects and dust adds months and years to their use. A simple cupboard, tin boxes, earthen pots, bamboo racks or ropes to keep clothes and bedding at a height from the floor extends their useful life.

Food and Nutrition. Because of the acute food shortage and the resultant poor health conditions, efforts made to improve food habits, to utilise all food to get maximum benefits, and to grow some food in every home will contribute much to the welfare of the people. In home science, major emphasis is given to this subject.

Cooking food to save all the food value is only one phase of nutrition. Learning to use all edible foods of the area is another. Food prejudices, very often only a result of never having tasted or eaten certain foods, are sometimes overcome when the value of these foods becomes known. The problem of balancing diets when there is a shortage of some foods can often be overcome through learning how to use substitutes such as groundnut milk and soyabean milk for cow's milk. Including more fruits and vegetables in the daily diet will help to lessen the demand for cereals which are in short supply.

Kitchen gardens in which a variety of vegetables and fruits are grown can stimulate interest in these types of foods and improve the nutritional status of most families. The variety of vegetables available in the garden also make it easy to balance the diet. Preservation of foods includes the drying of fruit and vegetables, brining, making pickles and *chutneys*, fruit squashes, jams and jellies, as well as storing foods and foodgrains.

Scientific information developed in technological institutes is applied through home science to all phases of food and nutrition in practical situations such as planning and preparing nutritious meals and preservation and storage of foods. Special emphasis is given to having enough nutritious food within the income and to caring for the special food needs of children and the aged. Home-makers learn these things in very informal ways when properly guided by a well-trained Gram Sevika.

Child Care. The care of a child begins before it is born, and, therefore, pre-natal care becomes part of a good home science course. Care of the child also includes understanding its physical, mental and emotional growth as well as its feeding and clothing. Choosing the kind of play and toys for the child to develop certain abilities as well as capabilities in him is important.

Recognition of children's diseases as well as how to care for children during illness is taught to Gram Sevikas. They also learn which simple toys and games keep the child contented during convalescence. Play among children of the same age level is brought about through nursery school attendance. In villages, the nursery school is often called Balwadi. Village women are happy to have their children away from home in safe keeping, so they like to send their children to the Balwadis. When children are required to have their hair combed and hands and faces cleaned before they come to school, the establishment of better health habits has begun.

Home Management. Management of a home should not be confused with the management of a house. Home management has as its primary interest the family which makes up the home. It involves each member in relation to others with due consideration of the welfare of all members as a family unit. Managing a house is an impersonal task with consideration given to the material things within that house.

Home management considers the needs, desires and goals of the family. It involves skills in management of time, money,

and care of the home so that the home-maker has sufficient time and energy to care for the needs of the family. With responsibility for field work, animal care, as well as the duties of the home and the family, the village home-maker leads an extremely busy and tiring life. Helping her to plan and schedule her work may mean that she has time to comb the children's hair and see that their hands and faces are clean. It may mean she has time to work in her kitchen garden, to read or have the village newspaper read to her to broaden her understanding of her community, state, nation and the world. With new information on food and nutrition, kitchen gardening, making of and caring for clothing, families may save money that could be invested in national saving schemes.

Home improvements will come as the home-maker is exposed to new ideas. These improvements may begin with the smokeless *choolah*, a kitchen window, shelves, a flat stone on which to wash dishes, or a cupboard in which to store clothes and bedding. A clean courtyard can provide extra living space which will be cool and lovely if a citrus tree and kitchen garden are there.

Health. Good food, clean clothing, a clean house, properly washed dishes, and the absence of smoke in the house, all contribute toward better health. Many other precautions must be taken also to insure freedom from disease.

Prevention of malaria, worms, small-pox, typhoid fever, dysentery and cholera are of maximum importance. Equally important for the home-maker is the spacing of children so that she is able to give the necessary amount of care and attention to each child. The home-maker's body must have the opportunity to fully recuperate from the strain and effort of bearing a child. Because of over-population, facts about how to plan wisely for the number of children a family would like to have is important. Care needed at childbirth, care of the sick and aged and first aid information all have a place in home science studies. The knowledge of what to do in an emergency and how to do it gives a home-maker confidence and skill in times of emergency. Village sanitation will improve when home-makers will demand for latrines, clean well water and clean streets.

The science of home making is an all-encompassing one, drawing help from various fields to accomplish better living for each home, each community, state, nation and the world.

Approaches to Extension Education in Home Science

The philosophy of Extension Education is based on the concept of persuasion by education—not persuasion by autocratic force. Convincing people to change values, to adopt new attitudes, to learn new skills or to improve old ones and to help them acquire new knowledge is a challenging task. To bring this about, an extension worker must know how to approach village people so that maximum change will result. Changing the behaviour of people is a long-drawn process, and one that takes constant planning and teaching effort.

Principles Involved

Extension Education is an out-of-school form of education that depends on voluntary participation. Catching and holding the attention of busy home-makers is a challenging and often frustrating job. But there are some principles involved that when well understood help one to carry on the work with effectiveness and satisfaction. Some of these are:

1. *Extension Education must be based on those needs which people "feel" they have and require help in meeting them.* During cold weather, home-makers may want to learn to knit. If so, this is the time to begin teaching them knitting. A good extension worker will use this opportunity to teach other things too. The value of including fruit in the diet to prevent colds, the planting of a kitchen garden in the winter months, the necessity for having windows and fresh air even during cold weather are a few related ideas which can be taught. Other real needs which the home-makers may not feel they have, must be subtly fitted into their minds, so one day they will feel that they are real needs.

2. *Start with people as they are and with what they have now.* Rather than introducing something entirely different, begin with what people have now. For example, unravel an old sweater to make a small one for a child. Have them first wash the old one before unravelling it. As they learn, and satisfaction results from their new skill, a desire to learn something else develops. There are numerous other examples of such opportunities.

3. *Helping people to help themselves is a slogan which has been used around the world where people are underfed and underprivileged.* But what does it mean? Helping people to think through problems for themselves and arrive at desirable solutions

can be one of the greatest accomplishment of any extension worker. For example, when a family thinks through how much a costly wedding would mean in additional debts, and talks about it with relatives, friends, and other villagers, they, as individuals and as a group of villagers, may arrive at the conclusion not to go into debt for celebrating marriages or other costly festivals. When this happens, the correction of a serious social evil has begun. This is only one of the ways in which they can help themselves.

4. *Village people must make their own plans.* Planning *with* people is a continuous and extremely important part of extension work. At first, much of the planning will have to be done by the extension worker in consultation with leaders and key people. Soon they will be planning with their people and in consultation with the extension worker. The worker should always enthuse, guide and support the village women in helping themselves. Due credit for the success of planning and execution of any plan must go to the village women in order to build confidence in their ability to plan, to work cooperatively, and to succeed. Nothing breeds success like success. Community improvement success through careful planning means successful state and national improvement.

5. *Extension workers must assist all classes, castes, and creeds.* Gandhiji expressed this principle as one of the greatest of the nation's needs. An extension worker must watch carefully that she is not accused of working with only the high caste or rich people. Because the rich can afford to take more risks than the poor, it is easier to give them more attention. Working with one's own caste may be the easiest of all. But Extension Education is for everyone. It is essential, therefore, that every worker watches herself to ensure that she works with everyone—old and young, rich and poor, educated and illiterate. Then only can *all* the people be reached. This is the goal of Community Development.

6. *Promises must be kept and answers must be given honestly.* One who bluffs is soon found out, and can never establish a good working relationship with village people. If answers to questions are not known, the reply "I don't know, but I'll find out" gains the respect of people. Getting answers and telling them to those concerned will establish faith in the worker's promises. It will establish good human relationships, because the worker admits she does not know everything. However, she

has the ability and means to find answers to help people. This adds to the respect village women develop for her.

Keeping dates and timings for meetings is also important since a busy home-maker has no time to waste waiting for people. Avoid breaking of schedules as far as possible so that village home-makers will come to say, "she said she'd come today, therefore, even if it rains she will be here."

7. *Extension workers must be willing to learn from the people with whom they work.* Home-makers may be illiterate, but they are not ignorant of their responsibilities, their work and their moral obligations. They may not know *why* their *chutneys* and pickles keep for a long time, but they know *how* they were able to prepare them. Someone may have been able to keep fresh mangoes stored for a long time. Another may know a new knitting pattern. Extension workers must exchange knowledge and ideas. They must learn from people who in turn become more willing to learn from them. This is the way rural women all over the world learn. Because extension workers have had scientific training in the varied fields of work, their job is to *share* this scientific learnings with others. It is their task to put knowledge into non-technical terms and in the everyday language of village home-makers so that they can understand and apply the suggested ideas.

Identifying herself with the home-maker is important so that she knows that similar experiences have been had by the extension worker. However, the extension worker must be different and be a living example of the things she teaches. She must sleep under a net, use a smokeless *choolha,* eat different types of foods, etc. She must set the new pattern of healthy, happy living.

Individual Approach

Most Extension Education work begins with personal contacts. The extension worker may have been introduced to the women of a village at a general meeting such as that of the *Mahila Mandal.* She should make it a point to meet a few women who seem to be outstanding, and the *Sarpanch's* wife or wives of other leaders. These women's homes are the first that should be visited. At the first visit, no advice should be given unless specifically asked for. This first opportunity should be used by the extension worker to identify herself and her work with that of the home-maker. She can help grind the grain, rub oil on the baby, knit a few rows of the garment, plant a

few rice seedlings, or do whatever the women of the household are doing, always of course with their permission.

As these individual personal contacts continue, advice should be given increasingly as it is asked for and required by the home-makers. Individual projects can then begin. These projects should be easily attainable to ensure success, and should result in satisfaction and desire to attain other improvements. Whenever possible, these achievements should be used as exhibits for others to see and desire.

Family Approach

As the worker becomes better acquainted with a family, the man of the household may grumble that his wife uses too much fuel in cooking. This will give the worker an opportunity to introduce the smokeless *choolha* which can evolve into opening a window into the kitchen walls. One accomplishment can lead to involving the whole family into kitchen improvement or other improvements and accomplishments.

Agriculture is a family project. Knowing this, the extension worker should be aware of how much influence the home-maker has in making decisions about changes to be made. If the home-maker knows that a new seed means more production even though it costs more, she may use all her influence to get the new seed purchased. If she is fully convinced of its value, she will be the first to plant paddy by the Japanese method. The extension worker must herself know the value of various improved agricultural practices in order to discuss sensibly with other members of the family and help persuade them to accept new practices.

All members of a family, from the grandmother down to the youngest child, must be included in some activity. The grandmother may not actively participate, but her presence is very important at *Mahila Mandal* meetings when girls' education, for example, is being discussed. Getting young women members of the family interested in the work, like helping with the Balwadi and teaching young girls to read and write, is important. Getting young men of the family interested in the young farmers' club, asking children to attend the Balwadi to start their educational activities of learning to work and play together, all serve to start the changes necessary to improve family living and village conditions.

Village Approach

Mahila Mandal, the village women's group, offers an opportunity to discuss improvements which affect the whole village. If the women have to walk through muddy lanes and roads to attend the meeting with their *saris* spoiled, the opportunity should be seized for discussing improved drainage for the road and making it pucca. The voice of this group applied at a *panchayat* meeting may bring real pressure for this improvement. The voice of the village women persistently raised in demand for a school for girls are likely to result in action.

Women, when sitting together to learn how to sew and how to cook food to get the maximum food value can also learn to work together in an organised form to accomplish many home and village improvements. As women discuss their needs and wishes they may list many common ones. They may like to have a village dispensary, a trained *dai*, a hospital within a certain area or a sewing machine. The needs most easily obtainable should be selected to work on first. A committee could be appointed to approach the village cooperative to help them buy a sewing machine. A committee could be appointed to visit the woman advisory member of the Block Development Board to petition for a *dai.* Other village groups could discuss the problem of establishing a dispensary because this is not solely for women. Village cooperation results in having village desires answered. A hospital will need the cooperation of many groups from the villages concerned. If village people discuss, plan, and act together, the changes desired by them, whether it be a road, school or establishing a cooperative, can be accomplished. The extension worker is there to *plant* ideas, to encourage people to analyse the situation, to assist in planning and to ensure action resulting in satisfaction.

In working with families, care should always be taken to avoid working exclusively with some at the expense of others. Taking sides with any village faction or group is strictly out of order. Both result in criticism and closing the channels by which other individuals and groups can be reached. The Community Development Programme is planned for everyone.

Block Approach

The overall campaign for influencing changes in people's behaviour, knowledge, attitudes and skills begins with the parent

body—the Block Development Advisory Committee. Here is a united force of professionally trained technical, as well as non-technical persons, dedicated to improving family living both locally and nationally. They are the ones who must develop a down-to-earth programme. They must combine all their efforts and resources for changing the minds and hearts of people so as to enrich their lives mentally as well as materially. They constitute the team which sets the example for cooperative efforts to accomplish goals. The extension worker is a part of this team.

Is there a small-pox epidemic expected this year? Is malaria to be eliminated? Is every well in the area to be made safe and sanitary? Is haemorrhagic septicaemia striking the cattle? Is every village to have a five year plan? Is every family to have a five year plan? A common understanding of goals must be established for everyone on the Block team. A complete plan of the educational campaign must be set down. Educational materials must be assembled and educational means devised so that the fullest impact can be made on the minds and hearts of everyone in the area.

A campaign is a great drama where the Block area is the stage. The actors are the members of the team. The audience to be influenced is composed of all village people. The pay-off can be counted only in the changes made by those for whom the drama was planned and given. The entire programme calls for a skilled director and wise direction. This can be provided only by a skilful Block Advisory Committee who know and use the necessary approaches to village homes and the family members therein.

Methods of Persuasion in Home Science

In a democracy, people are not compelled by autocratic force to make changes. Persuasion or convincing people through educational leadership to make needed changes voluntarily is of primary importance to the welfare of a family, a village, a state and a nation. Persuasion through Extension Education is a slow process, but the changes made are long lasting because they are accepted by the person concerned. The person believes whole-heartedly in them and often convinces others of their value.

One of the jobs of the home science trained extension worker is to simplify the technical scientific knowledge she has and

translate it into simple language and make it easily applicable at the level of the village women's understanding, opportunity and desire. She must know her material well. She must be able to present it in an interesting way to persuade women and men to change. Her job is not an easy one. She must be resourceful and manage to make her new ideas appearing to home-makers.

The steps in persuasion by education are similar to those in any other educational enterprise. These are:

1. Getting *attention*
2. Arousing *interest*
3. Creating *desire*
5. Achieving *action*
4. Gaining *conviction*
6. Providing *satisfaction*

From the many means of communication enumerated below, a selection of the most suitable ones is made to achieve action.

1. Posters
2. Flash cards
3. Flannelgraphs
4. Film strips
5. Newspapers
6. Circular letters
7. Wall newspapers
8. Photographs
9. Drama
10. Songs
11. Games
12. Processions
13. Tours
14. Lectures
15. Visits
16. Office calls
17. Method demonstrations
18. Result demonstrations
19. Black-board
20. Group discussions
21. Models
22. Exhibits
23. Puppet shows
24. Slides
25. Films
26. Bulletin boards
27. Pamphlets
28. Radio
29. Phonograph
30. Charts, and many others.

Selecting the right method for the right place, the right message and for the people concerned, is an art because of the many factors involved. Home science, being a very practical science, must employ all the visual aids as well as other teaching techniques useful in getting a message over to people.

Conversation. Home visits, office calls, and other personal contacts such as those made when drawing water from a well, are time-consuming. They may be very effective if conversation at these times is:

1. directed toward a specific purpose,
2. in simple non-technical language,
3. friendly in its attempt to reach people (there never should be arguments or heated disagreements),

4. an attempt to exchange ideas—to learn from others, and
5. used for listening (much can be learned by listening).

Carrying on conversation with people is one of the simplest, least expensive ways of reaching them without aids. However, it is the most expensive in terms of the amount of time spent with a few people. People get tired of being talked to, so other means of communication must be used to reach them. While conversing, smile, don't interrupt, speak slowly, be sincere, and be accurate with information. These are the points to remember in creating friendly working relations. They help to make home-makers glad they had an opportunity to talk and cause them to look forward to the next opportunity.

Group Discussions. The group of women who are at the well or the group which meets at the *Mahila Mandal* offers opportunity for group discussion resulting in group action. Getting together to talk offers opportunity for only an exchange of ignorance, unless well laid plans are made for that discussion. Good group discussions develop the habit of thinking together, of talking, planning and acting together for the common good of all village families. Good group discussions must be carefully planned if they are to be effective. The following are some guides in this respect.

1. Select a common interest problem on which a few people have some knowledge.
2. Be fully equipped with all the available information on the subject to be discussed, obtain or prepare the aids that may be useful and know beforehand from the Block Development Office just what is possible to expect both in financial help as well as in technical help.
3. Have a plan in mind and perhaps on paper for the steps to be followed. Keep the following points in view.
    a. How to introduce the subject.
    b. How to start the discussion.
    c. How to avoid speeches because speeches are deterrent to discussion.
    d. How to avoid arguments and ill-feeling.
    e. How to guide the discussion.
    f. How to bring about the action desired.
    g. How to follow up whatever action is decided upon.
4. Limit the size of the group if it is meeting specially to discuss a problem. When too large, divide the group

into smaller groups of six to ten members so that effective discussion can take place.

5. Make the group as comfortable as possible.
6. Seat the group in a circle if the space allows.
7. Guide the discussion, but do not impose ideas upon the group. Remember, this is a learning technique, and the process will be slow. Don't hurry the women into taking any decisions. It is better for them to meet several times if necessary to make them feel that the decisions for actions are theirs.
8. Train village women to act as discussion leaders. The sooner they can take over the responsibility for conducting discussions, the more likely village action will take place, not only on the subject under discussion, but also on other problems. Such training will help women to become good *panchayat* and cooperative members.
9. Arrive at a course of action as a result of the group's decision to take action.

A civic sense of responsibility is developed through the technique of group discussion. No other technique can do this as well.

Method Demonstration. A method demonstration is a means of communication by which an extension worker teaches a new skill or improvements in old ones. Home science provides innumerable subjects in which how to do it can be shown, while at the same time home-makers can learn why it is important. The method demonstration is an excellent method for this purpose.

Opportunities to show women how to improve certain home-making practices occur daily. Care should be taken that these opportunities to show improvements are not used as opportunities to criticise. Respect for old methods must always be expressed. This respect must be especially shown by young women workers. Extension workers should remember that women have learned their methods from their mothers and from long practice, through trial and error. They should be sure that the method demonstrated is really an improvement over the old practice.

Method demonstrations are excellent means of teaching because they provide opportunities for village women to *see, hear,* and *do* the prescribed practice. Other methods do not incorporate all of these important aspects of learning. To be effective,

method demonstrations must be carefully planned and executed. Careful planning, after a subject has been selected that meets the needs and desires of women, includes collecting needed information available on the subject and studying and learning it. When this is done, a written plan on paper must be prepared. The written plan should state:

1. The subject.
2. The exact objective.
3. The procedure to be followed step by step.
4. The points to be emphasised. (Underlining, marking in colour or circling these points helps recall.)
5. The equipment, materials and visuals to be used. (This list should be rechecked after a practice demonstration is given.)
6. The plan, time and place for the demonstration. Choose a time when the maximum number of home-makers can come. Let them decide this. Choose a place that everyone can reach with resonable convenience, and one where all will feel welcome. Try to avoid going back to the same house each time, otherwise jealousies may arise.

Rehearsal practice is an obligation.

1. Arrange all equipment and material on the right side of your working area. After its use is completed put it on the left side. This will insure that all of the material is in order and that it is used during the demonstration.
2. Use each item of equipment until skill and efficiency is acquired.
3. Giving the talk aloud will be extremely helpful. One learns to say things smoothly and gains confidence thereby.
4. Practising in front of a mirror shows the demonstrator any peculiarities of mannerisms she has which may be distracting to the audience.
5. Practising the talk helps one stay within the time set aside for the demonstration or to lengthen or shorten it.
6. Choosing what to wear can be decided at the practice.

Conducting the demonstration will go smoothly if the planning and rehearsing have been done carefully. Certain steps to ensure that women gain the most from the demonstration are:

1. Arrange everything before starting.
2. Be sure everyone can see and hear. Ask if they can.
3. Greet those present. This indicates that you are ready to begin.
4. Announce the subject and state the reasons for its adoption.
5. Show and do each step slowly and clearly.
6. Repeat and emphasise important points.
7. Use simple, non-technical language.
8. Solicit questions at every stage.
9. Have someone from the audience participate for emphasis and to show that anyone of the home-makers present can carry out the practice.
10. Give everyone in the audience an opportunity to do the demonstration when possible. Pre-planning of what they are to bring must be done and this information given to them so the home-makers will come prepared. This step must never be omitted. The new work must be done immediately while the interest is there and the ideas are clearly in mind. Any corrections which are needed can be done then. Praise and encouragement can be given to deserving individuals within the group.
11. Summarise and review the demonstration so that all present have a clear picture in mind.
12. Make plans for follow-up visits to homes at certain times.
13. Make plans for future meetings.
14. Give out leaflets, samples, or other materials that are useful for them to take home.
15. Close the meeting with a song, a *bhajan* or a prayer. Try to help the group go away with a happy feeling.

Follow-up of demonstrations by home visits will provide opportunities to clear up doubts, establish more friendly relations and will add to interest in the subject for further work.

One of the opportunities provided by a method demonstration is to train women for leadership. Those home-makers who are skilful and have the respect of others can be given additional training so they become proficient enough to give similar demonstrations to other groups of women.

Evaluation follows each demonstration as a regular part of Extension Education work. Evaluation of whether the objective was accomplished is essential. Looking back at the

procedure followed in the demonstration may result in ideas for rearranging steps that will make future demonstrations more effective. Was the finished article or product good is a question to be answered. Some other questions to be answered are: Was interest sustained as the days went by? Were the results of the demonstration seen in the village? Admit failures as well as successes and build for the future on both. The size of the audience should be limited to twenty or thirty if everyone is to *see*, *hear*, and *do* successfully. The demonstrator must be very skilful in order to achieve respect and admiration of families.

Given below is a sample method demonstration plan.

Method Demonstration Plan

Subject : Cooking green leafy vegetables properly.

Why it is important :

1. Green leafy vegetables contain nutrients which are very important for the health of the eyes.
2. Cooking them properly so that none of these nutrients are lost is important.
3. Learning about the leafy vegetables of our area which are good for the body.
4. Drumstick leaves are very tender and are very plentiful in this season.
5. The leaves cost nothing, yet help us to be healthy and strong.

WHAT TO SAY	*WHAT TO DO*
Step 1. Give greetings.	
Step 2. Introduction: Relate to previous work. Tell why this practice is important.	
Step 3. Tell why vegetables should be washed.	3. Show how to wash vegetables.
Step 4. Tell the amount of water needed for cooking.	4. Shake leaves lightly to remove excess water.
	5. Put leaves into a cooking utensil.
Step 6. While cooking, repeat why green vegetables are important. Tell about commonly available leafy vegetables. Talk about kitchen gardens.	6. Put on cover. Allow to cook for the required time.

	WHAT TO SAY	*WHAT TO DO*
Step 7.	Tell why cover is removed for the last few minutes of cooking.	7. Remove cover during the last few minutes of cooking.
		8. Add salt and complete cooking.
		9. Show the bright green colour, the little liquid left.
		10. Take the vegetable out on a plate for serving and tasting if desired.
	If time permits, review all nutrition and food work done previously.	
	Review all steps.	
		11. Have members cook vegetables by the demonstrated method.
		12. Make plans for next meeting.
		13. Distribute literature, etc.

Result Demonstration. Often, people think in terms of agriculture when the term result demonstration is used. This indicates that not enough emphasis has been placed on the results obtained from introducing improved practices into the home.

In defining the term result demonstration, emphasis is placed on *results* which occur when scientific information and practices are applied in a local situation. Comparison with the usual local practice is a must, so that the value of the practice can be seen and understood. It must be clearly understood that result demonstrations are not experiments, but only the application of results of research in local conditions so as to compare realistically the new practice with the old.

Result demonstrations may be short-term or long-term. In home science, the comparisons can be made with before and after photographs, or by records kept before and after the work was begun. If two similar families can be compared, this would be most desirable, but care should be taken that the family without improvement is not embarrassed by undue publicity. Suggested result demonstrations for the home and family include :

1. Courtyard improvement
2. Kitchen improvement
3. The value of a kitchen garden
4. Arrangements to save time and energy
5. Methods of improving income
6. Improved nutrition
7. Improved cleanliness.

Since this is a very useful and dramatic way of showing results, careful planning is absolutely essential. Effective result demonstrations take a great deal of time and attention. Careful planning can eliminate some needless expenditure of time and energy. When one realises that a result demonstration is a series of method demonstrations, one can understand why it takes so much time. However, it has been said that one picture is worth a thousand words. In a result demonstration the picture is there for everyone to see.

Steps involved in laying out a result demonstration need much *preliminary planning*.

1. The need for the particular demonstration must be decided and the demonstration requested by the village home-makers.
2. The objective of a demonstration must be stated clearly and precisely so that everyone knows its exact purpose.
3. Information, illustrations, and literature available on the subject should be collected and studied. Visits to institutions with exhibits and other materials on the subject should be made. Specialists in the subject field should be interviewed for the latest information. From this information, all that is needed to fulfil the objective should be chosen.
4. Desired publicity should be given preceding the first meeting.
5. The village people, if possible, should be allowed to select the home in which the improvements are to be demonstrated. They know which homes they can visit with confidence and where they will be welcome. Jealousies can be avoided if the selection is made by the group. Cooperation from the selected home is almost ensured because of the prestige of having been selected. The average income of the selected family should be considered in the selection, so that others will feel it is within their means and ability to adopt the practice.
6. All facilities required for a successful demonstration must be available, or many frustrations may result. It is best to check these thoroughly before making further plans.
7. The Block staff should be consulted for advice and assistance.

When all these preliminary steps are completed, a *detailed plan* must be put down in a record book. Putting the plan on paper helps one to get a clear perspective of all the steps involved. It will help others to understand and follow through with the plans if there should be a transfer of personnel. The village people who see the plans will be impressed with the importance of the scheme and cooperate more fully in seeing that it is accomplished. The detailed plan for the demonstration should clearly state :

1. The subject.
2. The purpose or objectives.
3. The name of the cooperating home-maker or family.
4. Place where the demonstration will be conducted.
5. Date and time when the demonstration will begin.
6. The leaders, the staff, and the village people to be involved.
7. How the house or plot will be marked.
8. The following details about subsequent meetings :
    a. Date
    b. Time
    c. Subject for demonstration
    d. Objective
    e. Equipment, aids and materials needed
    f. People to be involved.
9. The number of visits the extension worker will make besides those on demonstration days.
10. Publicity desired such as photographs, newspaper stories, radio talks, and outside group visits.
11. Records to be kept. These are proof of the activities and the results obtained. They furnish material for talks to other people. When awards and prizes are to be given, these records are invaluable. Targets achieved can be realistically reported if proper records are kept.
12. Follow-up to assist others in the development and achievement of the improved practice. This can be done through home visits. Participation of the house-wife in whose home the first demonstration took place in helping others spread useful results of the demonstration is highly effective. Meetings should be held when and where results can be made known. Charts, graphs, photographs, real objects can all be used to emphasise the results obtained. Constant checking to see that the

necessary supplies and equipment are available for others is important if the work is to continue.

A careful evaluation of the demonstration gives the extension worker a picture of what has happened. For this, the following questions should be answered.

a. Was the demonstration successful? If so, to what extent?
b. Could it be improved? How?
c. How many people adopted the improvements?
d. What has this demonstration led them to want to do?
e. What plans have they made for the future?

A result demonstration will be successful if it is planned carefully, executed skilfully and followed up definitely with full participation of women leaders, village people, and the advisers of the Block staff. Because of the impact made on the minds of people reached, result demonstrations are highly recommended for persuading people to adopt new ways of home making.

Leaders. Voluntary participation is one of the distinguishing features of the Community Development Programme. The programme is built on confidence and trust in the people's ability to solve their own problems. There are certain people in every village who have special ability, and who have the confidence and trust of others with whom they live and work. Their influence on the thinking and acting of other people is recognised as leadership. If the development programme is to reach all people, those with leadership ability must be drawn into the programme to help influence and promote the schemes for better family living. Since women are more retiring than men, those women who lead may be difficult to distinguish. It is a rare occasion when one can find a woman serving on the *panchayat* and the cooperative society. If one is there, she is a potential leader for all women's educational work.

When there are but few women in public positions, how then are the needed women with influence to be found? Usually, one can learn much by just listening. Who is it that other women speak of with affection? Which woman do they go to when they are in trouble? Which speaker commands attention in a group discussion? Who is it that is ready to practise new ideas and improvements? Who is it that sets the example which other women follow? Who is it that uses her head to think through problems and help find solutions? Who settles quarters if there is quarrelling? Who is it that tries to get

others to improve? Who volunteers to help at a meeting? Who is it that helps make visitors feel welcome in the village? Who is it that has friends among old and young, rich and poor?

The person who is mentioned most often as being helpful and who is suggested most often when anyone asks "Whom shall I ask to help me?" is a person that should be contacted. The situation must be studied carefully before extra attention and help is given with the expectation that she will be most influential in getting the new practice adopted. Mistakes will be made, but care will help avoid many of them.

The village school teachers, both male and female, can be very useful as leaders. Giving demonstrations and telling flannel-graph and flash-card stories in the school will influence the children to influence their parents. The notice about a meeting to which everyone is expected to come may be done as an exercise in the class if the teacher is cooperative.

Planting a kitchen garden in the school area can be an excellent demonstration for both children and parents to see and use. Learning how to cook vegetables properly in the health class can be done when the *sag* from the garden is ready. Children will eagerly take this information home. These children are the leaders of tomorrow; so work with them today. Songs, dramas, stories, slogans can all be written by school children. They can take a procession through a village as the elders watch. The teachers are leaders with authority; however, with guidance they can be most useful in promoting better living.

In developing leaders among women, care must be taken to prevent jealousies from developing. Ask different women to do different things. If one becomes jealous, seek her out and make her responsible for some part in the next few meetings. Perhaps she can be asked to come early and help put up exhibits or help arrange equipment. During the meeting, mention very casually that she helped that day.

For developing women leaders, special training meetings can be held for a few hours. Fun as well as education can be had at a women's camp which may be several days long. Camping provides a wonderful opportunity to change attitudes through participation in such an event. Opportunities for certain responsibilities at a camp also will develop abilities and latent talents that will carry over into the everyday life of a village. 'How to get along with people' can be one of the topics discussed at such a camp, since quarrelling and gossiping is one

of the favourite pastimes of village women. Quarrelling can be a serious deterrent to developing a village. Factions among women can be as detrimental as any other faction in the village. If leaders can be trained at a camp to understand such situations and deal with them, one of the serious problems every extension worker faces can be overcome.

If possible, wives of the members of the Agriculture Committee can be trained in the new agriculture production practices. Husband and wife teams and husband and wife leaders can provide a potent force in increasing agricultural production. Closely related to increasing agricultural production is checking the tremendous growth of population which must be fed adequately. A husband and wife team working with the family planning clinic programme can provide the leadership necessary to make the greatest impact upon the greatest number of people.

Religious leaders, because of their influence, must be kept informed about meetings held and the subject-matter being taught. Care must be taken that religious beliefs are not insulted. Talking and working with religious leaders will ensure their understanding and support and will prevent the possibility of breaking religious taboos.

In working with leaders, always be sure that the impression left on people is that they are working for the people, not for any extension worker. Much of the value of a leader's work is lost when women get the idea that the leader is working for an organisation rather than for them.

Recognition of work done by women leaders for assisting others must be given somehow. The officers of the *Mahila Mandal* or similar organisations can take the decision of how it is to be done. When visitors come to the village, let the officers decide who will escort them, what is to be shown to them and who will give them tea. Each decision they make helps them develop. Planned recognition for women leaders can be in the form of:

1. asking them to give special demonstrations,
2. receiving a gift from the Block office such as eggs for hatching or a graft,
3. asking them to be responsible for a drama, exhibit, etc.,
4. guiding visitors,
5. leading discussions,
6. receiving certificates,

7. attendance at camp,
8. group photographs, and
9. providing special places for them at special programmes.

People can be developed only if they can be reached. One very sure way of reaching them is through their own leaders. Search for them, find them, and train them to serve as forces to develop people in villages and communities. This should be uppermost in every extension worker's mind.

Appraising Home Science Work

In appraising the work done in home science, one fact should predetermine any evaluation made. This fact is that people are more important than food, clothing, kitchen gardening or any other subject. It is changes made in the people and in what they do that determines the value of any programme. Home science deals in human values, the relations people have with each other within the families, and the relationship the family has to the village.

Since extension workers join the people to develop them, the basis for judging the effectiveness of work, and of having worked with them, should be based on the changes in knowledge, skills, and attitudes they have made. The programme emphasises the development of people so that through their own initiative they can identify and solve their own problems.

Appraising or evaluating is not a separate activity to be taken up after the completion of a work, but should always be an integral part of the work as it progresses. It is too late to evaluate when the programme is over. Evaluation begins with the setting of objectives. It includes the situation at the beginning, the situation during performance, and the result. It begins with the village women's words: "We want—."

The objectives must be specific and clear to everyone concerned so that all know what is to be accomplished. Village women with the guidance of leaders must set these. They must identify their own problems and present the situation as it is. They must help make plans to solve their problems. As they meet regularly they must review the objectives, the situation and the success or failure of their plans until their objectives are reached.

Evaluation should be done skilfully by the extension worker to appraise for herself the successes, to find out the causes of success as well as causes of failure. As the worker studies

these results she can make the necessary adjustments in methods and can ask for help from specialists or other Block personnel when needed.

Records to be kept should be decided upon beforehand specifically to meet the purpose for which they are intended. Are they to record the targets met only, or are they to show changes in the people? The records kept will show only those results which are recorded. Will the record show what the situation was at the beginning, how women came to recognise a problem, how they went about solving it, how much assistance was given to them and by whom? Putting this kind of information down on paper at the beginning, and keeping faithful records will give valuable assistance in building up future programmes.

Selected References

Cooperative Extension Work. L. D. Kelsey and C. C. Hearne, Comstock Publishing Associates, Ithaca, New York, 1949.

Extension Experiences Around the World—Conference Report. Federal Extension Service, USDA and Office of Foreign Agricultural Relations, Washington D.C., 1951.

Extension Teaching Methods. M. C. Wilson and Gladys Gallup, Extension Service Circular No. 495, Federal Extension Service, USDA, Washington D.C., 1955.

Guide for Village Worker—Extension Methods. Indian Council of Agricultural Research, New Delhi, 1955.

Guide to Community Development. Ministry of Community Development and Cooperation, Government of India, New Delhi, 1957.

Guide to Household Textiles and Laundry Work. Durga Deulkar, Atma Ram & Sons, Delhi, 1951.

Indian Food and Nutrition. Mildred McKie Kiethan, P.A.S. Press, P.O.B. 349, Madras.

Methods and Programme Planning in Rural Extension. J. M. A. Penders, H. Veenman & Zenen, Wageningen, The Netherlands, 1956.

Modern Pattern Drafting for Children and Women. Justina Arjun Singh, Lucknow Publishing House, Lucknow, 1951.

Nutritive Values of Indian Foods and the Planning of Satisfactory Diets. W. R. Aykroyd, V. N. Patwardhan and S. Ranganathan, Health Bulletin No. 23, Manager of Publications, Delhi.

Our Food. M. Swaminathan and R. K. Bhagvan, Ganesh & Co. (Private) Ltd., Madras, 1959.

Report of the Workshop for Administrators and Teachers in Home Science Colleges in India. Ministry of Education, Government of India, New Delhi, 1959.

CHAPTER XVIII

LEADERS AND GROUP METHODS IN EDUCATION

S. N. Singh

GREGARIOUSNESS IS ONE of the human characteristics which psychologists have studied and one which seems to have been demonstrated throughout the history of man's existence. People have always banded together to form groups, and have chosen or accepted leaders to lead them in the pursuit of common needs and objectives.

But today, our changing way of life has created an urgent need for new ideas about leadership. This changing way of life brings people into contact with each other, and people now find themselves working together more often in groups than alone. We are educated in groups, we worship in groups, we work, enjoy leisure and do civic, political, and social work, all in groups. Many problems are now solved by groups rather than by individuals. It seems that the problem with which society is now confronted is one of how to make these group activities happy and satisfying experiences for those who participate in them.

Various types of groups, working at different tasks, may need quite different kinds of leadership. One cannot expect the same method of doing things to pay off equally well in every group one works with. Sometimes, a close personal working relationship between the members and the leader of a group will be effective. Under other conditions, this relationship may confuse a group. Some groups must accept the responsibility for thinking through problems and making their own decisions; others need firm direction from their leaders or persons in charge.

In extension work, the group has to accept the responsibility for thinking through problems and making its own decisions and securing satisfaction. The most important single factor in this process is the quality of leadership which is displayed in groups. If a self-directing society is to develop in the 5,50,000 villages of India as envisaged in the Constitution, India must have enlightened and well adjusted people. To achieve this, she must have competent leaders, for, groups are dependent on leaders, and what the leaders do or fail to do directly affects the welfare of the group.

For this, a new pattern of leadership, one that helps the members of groups as individuals accept responsibility for thinking through problems and working out solutions, needs to be discovered. Through this process of education, people become more self-reliant and less subject to control by the external authority imposed upon them. Extension work, which is of an educational nature, aims to develop a kind of leadership that "facilitates man's realisation of his creative capacities, man's free expression of his individuality, man's actualisation of his own uniqueness."[1]

India's Constitution guarantees individual rights and freedom to her citizens. This objective may not be achieved if India fails to evolve a true democratic system of governing herself. India's people have to exploit their resources to make the best use of what they have. The greatest of her resources is her man-power. True Extension Education is based on the belief that people have the right and capacity to select their goals and make decisions about how to attain them. In an autocratic system, this is not the case. Here, this right is usually reserved for the leader of the group. Members of the group develop a sense of dependence on the leader. The group exists as long as the leader maintains his position. The democratic system adopted in India must find ways of developing local leadership in all spheres of activity, whether in the field or in the class-room, if it is to survive.

Research indicates that traditional leadership in any type of situation based on authority and power has failed to educate people. This is because the leaders believe that their followers have no creative ability in them. Through the process of Extension Education, India hopes to solve the gigantic problem

1. *T. Gordon*. Group-centered Leadership. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1955.

of educating her rural population. This requires the development of local leadership which will be able to play an important role in the process.

Concept of Leadership

Almost all countries, especially in the Eastern hemisphere, have depended upon self-made leaders with social status, prestige, and economic assets. There is a feeling that leadership consists of elusive qualities or personal characteristics which only a few people possess and which no amount of training or experience could develop if one did not naturally possess them. As a result of this belief, a few people are usually singled out to be the leaders and to assume extra responsibilities. When leadership responsibilities are delegated only to the few, human resources tend to remain undeveloped. In situations of this kind those who are not chosen as leaders lose initiative and creativeness. When initiative and creativeness are undeveloped, human productivity decreases or remains at a low level.

In extension work, leaders are visualised as initiators of action which helps a group move in the direction it wishes to move. If this statement is accepted, then it must be accepted that the quality of leadership is not a personality trait which some people are born with or only a few can acquire; rather, it consists of a number of skills which can be learned and improved upon, and which are widespread within a group. It must also be accepted that the more widely distributed the leadership is in the group, the more effective will be the group function.

Recent thinking on this concept suggests that leadership is not so much dependent on the personal qualities of people as on the circumstances of a particular situation. The qualities, characteristics and skills required of a leader are determined to a large extent by the demands of the situation in which he functions as a leader. The concept of leadership varies from one society to another, but our concern here is confined purely to extension work. In such situations, the leader is responsible for initiating and coordinating activities of members of groups in their task of attaining common goals.

The Rural Picture

The pattern of leadership in Indian villages is still primarily based on heredity and caste structure. Village landlords or *zamindars*, the village headman, the *patel* or *lambardar* and the

village priest may be classed as the hereditary type of leaders. The other type of leadership which is not so prominent or obvious, but which does exist, is the type based on occupational patterns and functional groups which are in turn closely governed by the caste structure. The influence of these leaders is not widespread, but generally restricted to a particular group of people.

Besides these, there are two other forms of leadership which exist in the villages today. The first one is personal leadership. In several villages there are persons who are looked upon and respected because of their knowledge or wide experience. They have authority, and their authority rests upon their mastery of the knowledge and skills in a particular field. Followers turn to them and accept them as authority because they have demonstrated their mastery of the field. This type of leadership truly leads people, while authority based upon position is likely only to drive people. Educated youth who return to their villages and follow a vocation, ex-service men who settle down in their home village after retirement and others who maintain close contact with their home village, influence and lead the village to a marked degree. In some villages, resident school teachers also exercise considerable influence over the villagers. The second one is a political and social type of leadership. The last few decades, which saw the growth of the Independence Movement in India, have also witnessed the birth of a new leadership in the countryside, that which may be termed political or social leadership. This comprises the large number of political and social workers who have chosen the village as their venue of work. These workers can do a great deal of good in keeping the village people changing.

After Independence, with the establishment of village *panchayats* and the growth of the cooperative movement and the rural extension programme, a new type of leadership has evolved in rural India which appears to be replacing the traditional types of leadership. This pattern of leadership is changing in consonance with the democratic ideals and way of life. It may, however, be observed that the change-over is not a sudden but a gradual process. The common man does not generally keep pace with the elite in ideas and ideology. He has to be educated and guided into new ways of thinking and living. Traditional leaders still exercise a large measure of influence on the villagers, and the villagers in turn respect and heed them. There are many cases in which a landlord or a moneylender has

become a *sarpanch* or a director of the cooperative society. What is important, however, is that the role that the leader has to play has changed to a very marked degree. In a secular, democratic society there is no place for communal or caste leadership as such, excepting when such leaders alter their role and work for the general good of the community at large.

There are local leaders or potential leaders in every community. These leaders are often in key positions. While extension workers should not ignore the existing pattern of leadership in the villages, they also must not ignore the type of people who could develop into good leaders. The importance of traditional leadership must be recognised in extension work, but these leaders should not be entrusted with assignments where action is required, because they may carry them out for their own personal ends.

Type of Leadership Required

Extension work needs local leaders who can guide the community towards its cherished ideals. These leaders are those who emerge through the democratic process, work in accordance with democratic principles and ideals and have the general welfare of the community at heart. Individuals who are capable of this are not always easy to recognise. As a rule, they do not push themselves forward and often do not consider themselves to be leaders nor are looked upon by others as such. They have common needs and a common status with their fellow-men and stand out only in that they are those with whom others want to talk before taking decisions and whom others instinctively copy in certain areas of activity.

It is difficult to identify these leaders by asking the group, "Who are your leaders ?" The answer to the question is likely to lead to the traditional leaders—those who are generally credited with being leaders. In extension work, the important job is to identify the potential leaders who are recognised by their fellow-workers as having the know-how. These individuals may not always have qualities of leadership such as the ability to talk to people, poise and organising ability. This poses a problem of training these potential leaders. Abilities or traits of leadership can be developed. But the essential ingredient is the recognition by fellow-workers of the useful know-how in the area of activity being considered. Their know-how may be out of date, but this, too, can be corrected by training. Recognition

for having it is the important criterion in locating potential leaders.

In a community, there are various types of social and economic groups. Each group may have its own potential leaders who are recognised as possessing the know-how. In extension work, we should look for such leaders representing various groups. Failure to do so results in community activities being largely restricted to the middle and upper class families, the ones who are probably the least in need of the improvement programme.

The extension worker's job is to identify these potential leaders. He should be able to know and use some of the techniques which are useful in this process. Unless he is able to identify these various leaders, he will not be able to develop and use the leadership that is available in the village community. By the nature of his job, an extension worker is in a position of educational leadership. He is a hired worker who has no official authority over the people with whom he works. He needs, therefore, to find leaders among the local people who will volunteer to work with him.

Identifying Local Leadership

It is often said that there are no local leaders. Sanderson[1] points out that there is a difference between saying that there is no potential leadership and saying that there is no effective leadership in evidence. He also says that "every group has within it the necessary leadership, whether acknowledged or only potential. Every situation brings to the fore some leadership within the community. It is essential to find and develop that local leadership if community action has to be taken to solve some problems. The idea that leadership is something that exists or does not exist is wrong." Leadership arises out of needs and needs can be created for the leadership to grow and finally get trained for proper action. Leadership is always present in any situation ; what is required is a faith or belief, on the part of the extension worker, in the potential leadership of local men and women.

In all group situations, there is an element of leadership. A careful and constant observation will help the extension worker in spotting leaders. Through experience we know that

1. *D. Sanderson.* Leadership for Rural Life. Associate Press, New York, 1940.

potential and resourceful leadership is available. It only needs to be stimulated and developed. Leaders should not, and usually do not, inherit their job. Jobs need to be done and people can be found to handle them. Leadership is specific and so, in identifying leaders, it is important to know:

1. What job is to be done
2. What characteristics and skills this job requires
3. Where the person possessing the needed qualifications is
4. What group will support or follow this person
5. Of the qualities he has:
   (a) which of them may be improved by training
   (b) which may not be changed materially
6. Of the qualities he lacks:
   (a) which may be developed
   (b) which may not be developed
7. The basis on which he can be induced to work[1]

In selecting or identifying leaders, it is important to know clearly what needs to be done and what knowledge and skills are needed to do it. Some complications enter here because of the fact that some qualifications such as health, energy and intelligence may be largely inherited, while others such as subject-matter knowledge, ability to talk and ability to organise and plan can be developed and improved by training and experience. When the extension worker knows what qualifications are needed, it is easier to find a leader. In doing so it is important to find a person that the group will support or follow. One must be clear about which of the qualities possessed by a potential leader can be improved by training and experience.

Locating local leaders is not an easy task. But the following methods have been tried and proved to be workable in this respect.

The discussion method. Through discussions (on any subject) the person with sound knowledge and ability is soon recognised and a mere talker easily spotted. Discussion gives encouragement and assurance to the potential leader to express himself, and over a period of time may make him more confident in accepting some position of leadership, and emerge as a valuable leader.

The workshop method. Through this method, where the large group breaks up into smaller groups and the responsibility

1. *L. D. Kelsey and C. C. Hearne.* Cooperative Extension Work. Comstock Publishing Associates, Ithaca, New York, 1949.

of the programme and decision-making rests upon the smaller unit, leadership emerges in each group. Over a period of time, the extension worker can spot certain leaders who come to the fore in taking responsibilities. The extension worker or professional leader in the workshop has the position of consultant, observer, discussion group leader, etc.

The "group observer." The extension worker should watch a community or group in action and then he will be able to spot potential leaders. He may observe the community in any type of situation. For obtaining the best results, the group should not be aware of this.

The questionnaire or sociometric method. This method is employed by the professional worker or extension worker who goes into a new community and wants to find out which people are the potential leaders, or what the given leadership status is. This entails a well thought-out set of questions to be asked of a representative group, and then a tabulation of the responses to see whose names appear in leadership positions. This method also helps to spot the local leaders in a community.

The questionnaire or sociometric method may be used in identifying both professional and local leaders. The most complete statement on sociometry is to be found in J. L. Moreno's book, *Who Shall Survive?* [1]

In its simpler form, the extension worker asks farmers whom they ordinarily consult for advice on farming. After a few interviews, the extension worker is able to recognise the leader in the community.

When A is interviewed, for example, he may indicate that he generally goes to B for advice on farming; C and D may also indicate that B is the operational leader for these people. Then B is the person who could be called a potential leader or local leader of that group. In such cases, it is important to have enough interviews to make quite sure that the person *is* the potential leader. It is to be remembered that B is the local leader who initiates action for others. His major function is to set an example for others to follow. Rural extension relies on such local leaders through whom a wider and more active participation of rural families is to be brought about in an action programme. These people work as initiators or 'spark plugs' for other members of the community.

1. *J. L. Moreno.* Who Shall Survive? Foundation of Sociometry, Beacon House, New York, 1953.

Election method. Another method of identifying a local leader is that of election. In helping groups elect the right people for the right jobs, state clearly to the group the positions required as well as the kinds of jobs each person must be qualified to do. With an understanding of the kinds of work each leader or officer is to do or should do, the group can vote more wisely.

Seniority and past experience. In some groups, seniority is the accepted procedure in the identification of potential leaders. This has its advantages and drawbacks. The oldest person is likely to have the most knowledge and experience, and normally can add stability to the group. One drawback which is obvious, however, is that actual leadership ability may be found in a person whose only lack of qualification is his lack of seniority. In some groups, past experience is the accepted procedure. The person who is identifying the leader should be cautioned that to replenish the supply of experienced leaders, inexperienced people should work along with them. The best type of leader is the one who develops leadership in others.

Training of Local Leaders

The potential or local leaders who are identified with the help of the various methods may be recognised by others as having some leadership ability, but little else. They may lack some of the essential qualities of leadership and their knowledge and experience may be out of date. Here arises the problem of training local leaders so that they may be able to develop in themselves the essentials of good leadership. The objective of training local leaders is to make them good teachers, capable of passing on many ideas and truths with a perfect understanding of the people with whom they are working. The training of local leaders brings about changes in their attitudes and alters their knowledge, skills and sensitiveness towards themselves and others. This in turn leads to changes in the actual performance of the leaders in carrying out their roles.

Training programmes carried out by heads and leaders of organised groups can have a far-reaching consequence once the process of leadership development is started. In a training programme, it is necessary for local leaders to have a clear concept of what they are to do and why.

In training local leaders, the basic principles of the psychology of adult learning should be understood and observed.

Interest and enthusiasm must be built up and maintained if community workers or extension workers are to work effectively. The training programme can help develop interest and build enthusiasm.

The objectives of leadership training vary with the type of job expected to be done. It is assumed that leadership is something that can be taught and learned. If one assumes that certain persons are born leaders, then there is little to be offered in the line of training. A programme of developing leaders must assume that the persons to receive the training have average or normal ability to learn. Ability is a potential which can be utilised when there is motivation. What people learn is influenced by their motivation as well as by their ability. To select potential leaders for training merely upon the basis of ability is not enough ; such potential leaders or local leaders need to exhibit a genuine interest in leadership and be motivated to work with people. A careful selection of persons to receive specialised training for leadership is a prerequisite for the success of the training programme.

The training programme must be made specific in terms of particular group needs. However, the training must be such that it will also prepare persons for the generalised roles they will have to play.

The objectives of leadership training for a workshop as stated by Taba[1] may apply to any kind of leadership training. These are :

1. Mastering fundamental concepts that would serve as a framework for understanding and interpreting group behaviour, social learning, and cultural differences.
2. Methods of identifying and analysing problems. The ability to see problems in perspective.
3. Develop competence in group processes : cooperative thinking, exchange and analysis of ideas, facts and teaching ; processes of converting discussion into consensus ; ability and disposition to conceive group goals ; respect for and understanding of others.
4. Acquire technical skills necessary to carry out a job. Diagnose situations, learn how to approach problems, plan appropriate educational procedures, learn skills in

1. *Hilda Taba.* Leadership Training in Intergroup Education. American Council of Education, 1953.

handling appropriate diagnostic techniques, conduct open discussion, learn team work with other leaders, etc.

Methods of Leadership Training

It is difficult to separate out methods which apply only to formal or informal leadership training. It should be kept in mind that the methods overlap in many situations. Formal methods of leadership training are those which are structured to achieve specific goals and are usually set up by someone seeking to train and develop leadership in others. Informal methods are not structured, but are those which the individual utilises in personal leadership.

Informal. One of the first requirements in training is that the leader learns to understand and deal with people. This is accomplished through personal observation and study of materials that relate to human behaviour. Some methods used are:

1. *Observation.* Noticing how others have performed.
2. *Reading.* Studying printed material often found in the form of leader hand-books, news letters, circulars, bulletins, etc.
3. *Talking.* Speaking with other leaders in the same or related field of interest and also with members to determine consensus.

Formal. The individual or local leader may take advantage of formal training programmes in the quest of becoming a better leader. Formal methods are either used individually or in combinations:

1. *Lecture.* This is probably the most common method. Through this method local leaders under training are given enough material for thought, but little opportunity for self-expression. The lecture method is effective in certain situations, but should usually be supplemented by other methods, depending on the objectives to be attained.
2. *Discussion and workshop.*
3. *Forum, panel, symposium.* In a forum or a panel, three to four individuals explain certain phases of a particular subject. In a symposium, two or more speakers with different points of view or areas of interest discuss the issue.
4. *Audio-visuals.* Role-playing, socio-drama and demonstration.

5. *Field trips.* Local leaders or potential leaders visit other groups and observe the actions and behaviour of a successful organisation.
6. *Apprenticeship.* Here, the local leaders or the potential leaders see someone operating with a view to learning some of the activities and ways of handling problems in the field of leadership. This serves as an instrument for the local leaders to acquire a better understanding of the job.
7. *Training group.* This brings several local leaders to the training sessions at the same time. These people reinforce each other since each of them has experiences of his own.
8. *Direct assistance from experts.* This may come in the form of advice.
9. *Buzz groups.* Groups are subdivided into small groups and each selects a chairman. The proceedings of each group are recorded. This gives several persons an opportunity to lead the discussion and practise leadership roles. This technique may not be applicable in training local leaders, but is, in general, a very useful method of training.
10. *Giving responsibility to local leaders.* "Giving everyone a job through which self-confidence may be attained by achievement in activities useful to the group is an essential for development of leadership."[1]

The overall objective of training is to acquaint leaders with the concept that leaders exist to serve groups and to help groups reach their goal. The leader is a part and a mechanism of the group he leads. Usefulness rather than leadership should be the motivation of local leaders.

A difficult and specific problem in leadership training, particularly in training local lay leaders of villages, is to get the leaders to accept new ideas. A problem for both professional and local leaders is to keep an open mind about accepting and studying new ideas and methods. The process of acceptance varies with the kind of idea offered. A desire for change must be developed to get acceptance. Some methods useful in getting local leaders to accept new ideas are :

1. *D. Sanderson.* Leadership for Rural Life. Associate Press, New York, 1940.

1. Work from where the local leaders are. What is to be done may vary with the knowledge of the leader, with the programme and its objectives and with the ability to understand the need for changes.
2. Compare the old with the new where there is something to compare.
3. Introduce local leaders to the situation where an idea will be easily recognised and incorporated into their way of thinking. This can be done through visiting, observing, demonstrations, etc.
4. Appeal to their sense of pioneering; a challenge to do something new and different.
5. Use evaluation programmes to help leaders become aware of their responsibilities. Evaluate the local leader's personality and interests, and approach him with this information as a basis for helping him improve.
6. Draw ideas from leaders in such a way that they will think that the ideas are their own.
7. Create competitive situations where ideas will be useful and more easily recognised as being effective and worthwhile.
8. Use other persons who can approach local leaders on different grounds and possibly win approval.
9. Offer something better than what they have, before the idea is to be accepted.
10. Use a training group situation to pass along new ideas. It is easier to change persons as members of a group than as separate individuals. Groups exert pressure on individuals to conform to group norms.
11. Show local leaders where the idea has worked before.

Role and Functions of Local Leaders

The functions of local leaders in rural extension programmes vary from place to place and in accordance with the nature and scope of the job to be performed. In a country like India, where a majority of the population is not educated, the local leader has to function as a medium of education for others. The overall function of local leaders is to lead in different ways under a variety of situations. The functions of local leaders are varied, and depend upon specific group situations and the personal abilities they possess. Their role and function are highly related to each other, and are sometimes mixed so much

together that it becomes difficult to differentiate between the two. The major function of local leaders is to set an example for others to follow.

Local leaders are those who show special interest and initiative in a local programme. They are the people who catch new ideas first. They serve the community without a profit motive. The satisfaction they get from their own action is their only reward and incentive. They do have other motives for taking initiative, but these are a part of the psychological aspect of motivation.

Groups are dependent on leaders and without them are helpless; leadership is associated with responsibility. What the leader does or fails to do directly affects the welfare of the group. The action of the group also affects the leader. The group usually helps him by according him respect and power. Mutual confidence permits the leader to have wide discretion and broad powers. What one local leader can easily do may require considerable time and effort for another.

One of the important roles which a local leader has to play in the community is that of the initiator, as has been pointed out earlier. If he waits for others to initiate action, then he is a leader in a nominal sense only. "The amount of initiative or aggressiveness needed by the leader depends in part upon the group — one can exercise initiative without driving people. The person who studies his group will learn the amount of initiative required to get the group into action."[1]

Groups usually need help of two kinds: help in making progress towards their working goals, and help in keeping the group in a healthy working condition. A good local leader is usually aware of both the needs and will play roles which will be in line with these two needs. Some of the things expected of him are:

(a) Assistance to the group in identifying its needs.
(b) Aid to the group by setting some example before them.
(c) Moving the group toward goals.
(d) Encouraging and improving interaction among group members.
(e) Keeping the group together.
(f) Making resources available to the group.

1. *L. M. Hepple.* Group Organisation and Leadership in Rural Life. Lucas Brothers Publishers, Columbia, Missouri, 1956.

A leader sets an example for other members of his group, and in this way influences people to cooperate toward the identified goal. It should be mentioned that there is an overall function of a leader in any situation. D. M. Hall[1] has listed the following fifteen roles: initiator, orientator, facilitator, encourager, harmoniser, summariser, fact-seeker, fact-giver, compromiser, expediter, spokesman, status role, recorder, evaluator, and analyser. Dwight Sanderson suggests these six roles:

Spokesman. He has to speak for the people he is representing.

Harmoniser. He has to deal in a tactful way with persons who create conflicts in the group and bring them together in working toward group goals. He has to show his superiority by showing some useful ideas to the members of the group.

Planner. He has to realise the need of the group in advance and must have plans to fulfil them. He has to interpret the purposes of the group into practical goals. He opens the potentialities of available resources.

Executive. He helps the group in carrying out the plans and policies. He gets things done. He stimulates others and promotes solidarity.

Symbol. He has to be loyal to the ideals of the group in words and action. He must not be self-interested. He represents the group only when his direction is that of the group.

The function of leadership is to stimulate interaction, sentiment and action.

Problems in Approaching Local Leaders

Problems in approaching local leaders arise in relation to particular groups, organisations and specific situations. The leader, the social group and the total situation must be analysed before it is possible to determine approaches. It is impracticable to attempt to present a rule of thumb procedure that is sure to work in all cases. An approach that will work with one leader may not necessarily be effective with another. It is only possible to present a broad outline of the approaches.

Some enthusiastic extension worker or professional leader may assume that there is no problem in approaching local

1. *D. M. Hall.* The Dynamics of Discussion. Inter-state Printers and Publishers, Danville, Illinois, 1950.

leaders. One great problem lies in finding local leaders in a village. Finding leaders might seem to imply that the agent is going out to discover the born leader or person who has the traits needed to be a leader. It has already been mentioned that these do not really exist. By finding is meant locating the people who are informal or accepted leaders of informal or clique groups. These leaders often deny that they are leaders, but they are often in key positions in a network of communication. These leaders are also called opinion leaders. They are valuable means of reaching many people. The problem of finding local leaders can be solved by one of the very useful methods of careful observation and judicious questioning.

It has been experienced that the acknowledged traditional leaders are usually self-centered, jealous of their positions and decline to cooperate with other potential leaders. These leaders are also autocratic in their behaviour. Any approach to them must take into consideration the situation and the level where they are. The approach should be such that it does not give the impression that some leader is being favoured for another. Ideas should be drawn from them so that they feel a sense of involvement. Any imposition of ideas is likely to be objected to and opposed.

Sometimes it becomes a problem to approach these local leaders through whom the community as a whole has to be approached. Communities usually consist of many groups. There are many non-functioning leaders who have nothing effective to contribute to the community. They can thwart the progress of the group, and may often cause a feeling of frustration or apathy among the members. This may lead to the natural death of the organisation. But many such incidents can be avoided if a proper approach is adopted to handle local leadership. Here, in order to solve this problem, the approach should be of reconsidering the value and objective of the group to which the local leader belongs and finding out the felt need of the group. If the members feel that the reason for not being able to meet the felt need is the inefficiency of the leader, then he should be approached through friends and cliques.

Other problems in this regard are how to deal with those who, although friendly toward extension, may view extension efforts with suspicion and even with antagonism because of their vested interests; and those who remain neutral and indifferent.

By the very nature of his job, the extension worker is in a position of educational leadership, whether he is working in the field or in the class-room. The field of Extension Education in an organised form is a relatively new one. It is essentially an adult education programme. In adult education programmes, the leader or the teacher cannot rely totally upon the usual educational devices. Consequently, the extension teacher who is accustomed to using the traditional symbols of reward and punishment with children, soon discovers that he cannot rely on such devices for motivating adults. Similarly, the adult educator cannot usually enforce compulsory attendance, or count on his students to carry out reading assignments etc. In short, the fact that the adult educator does not have a captive audience is the important reason why he has to use methods of teaching that involve the learner in self-motivating activity.

Given the opportunity, the common man has a unique and significant role to play in improving his condition. When properly involved, each one has an important role to play in making decisions and taking action that determine his own destiny. It is a natural phenomenon that men do not assume responsibility automatically. The class-room or village meeting for educating adults is a social situation in which the instructor is the group leader. It is his job to create an awareness in each person that he is a member of the group. The instructor should fully be convinced that group members can together solve problems, however complex they be, if they are properly guided to think and work together.

As a group learns to work together on common problems, the members develop the insight and sensitivity needed to function as members of the group. One of the objectives of Extension Education is to help people improve their ability to take leadership responsibility. In fact, extension teaching should be one continuous demonstration of leadership development and of group methods.

One of the problems before adult educators is to find methods and devices for use in working with groups. Each class or village meeting is a group, and sub-groups form within them. Members of one group will also be members of numerous other groups. If the methods are properly chosen and used, they will help the instructor create interest, get participation of learners, and increase the effectiveness of teaching.

Group Methods in Adult Education

Adult teaching is a highly technical job. It is not something in which everyone can do well. At present, India is training many adults for educating the village folk. Those who are imparting the training must learn to involve their trainees in the learning situation more effectively by using various group methods. Each one will be able to contribute something in the process of learning and will learn how to involve others. The trainees should also learn the usefulness of these methods and how they are to be used later when they themselves teach village people. There are a number of group methods that can be used successfully in extension teaching. These are briefly described below.

Committees

Committees can be of a varied nature, but here we will deal only with the educational types of committees formed by members of groups. Individuals should be allowed to group themselves, or may be assigned to small committees of three or five or even more, to carry out certain tasks. The selection of tasks may be left to them, or, if need be, assigned to them. The tasks should be carefully selected, and should be ones in which the trainees are interested. Selecting a task for the sake of having a committee and without adequate and careful consideration will be nothing but courting failure. The task chosen or assigned to a committee should be of value and should also meet the needs of the trainees. It is not enough, as many times happens, if the instructor assigns a task that *he* thinks is of value and importance to the trainees. It is, therefore, advisable to discuss the various tasks with them to get their opinions and views on them before finally selecting the tasks and forming committees. It is necessary to avoid forming too many committees.

Tasks suitable for committee work are preparing reports that involve library reading, discussion and analysis, making sample surveys that involve designing enquiries, conducting interviews and interpreting findings, preparing and executing lesson plans on appropriate topics, planning and demonstrating certain practicals before a group, working out evaluations of whole group performance, taking and reporting on special tours and field trips, presenting case studies before groups, and preparing and demonstrating the use of teaching aids.

After the selection and assignment of tasks, the next important step is the selection of a chairman and a secretary by the committee members.

The role of a teacher is to help the group operate. He should be aware of the fact that a good committee is one which functions smoothly as a group with only general guidance from the outside. He should make sure that the members have freedom to act. The composition of committees may be periodically changed to give the trainees a greater variety of experience in working with others. The teacher can help the committees function by advising them on how to analyse problems, decide on goals, divide the work, schedule and conduct meetings and prepare and submit reports. Good workers should be given recognition for good performance.

Lecture

The lecture method has been widely used as a means of working with groups. Whenever a person has become an expert or specialist in some field, we rightfully expect him to know more about a particular subject than does an average person. To profit from his knowledge and experience we willingly listen to him at length. The range of subjects to be covered by the lecture method is unlimited. In fact, any subject a group is interested in is a topic for a talk. Some groups plan their programme almost entirely around lectures. Sometimes they plan a series of lectures to be given by one person or by several different persons.

This method is good for presenting new information. For the most part, the lecture method in pure form is a one-way pattern of communication. While the lecture is an excellent method for presenting information to a large number of trainees in a short period of time, its weakness is that the trainees are not likely to master as much of the information as the lecturer provides. The trainees in such cases listen to the lecture in terms of their interests and remember in terms of motivation and memory. To lecture and then give an examination based upon the lecture will reveal the wide variety of things students heard, remembered, or forgot. A well qualified lecturer discusses the subject. After that the trainees discuss the topic from different angles. If needed, the speaker or the lecturer furnishes additional information and suggests solutions for the problem

discussed. Conducted in this manner, the lecture is a highly useful teaching method.

Group Discussion

Discussion is considered to be a group cooperative effort where members of a class or a group meet together to try to understand and to solve some particular problem common to them. In the simplest terms, therefore, discussion is organised conversation. The underlying theory is that no one knows all the answers. The talking is not all done by one person while others listen. In a discussion all are present on an equal footing, on the basic assumption that each member has something to contribute to the discussion, and will, in fact, do so.

In a class-room situation, discussion is of vital importance. There is no better group method than discussion when issues are to be thought through and decisions made. Through discussion, knowledge, experience and opinion are shared. There is always a gap between what a person knows and what he ought to know to improve his knowledge. Through discussion, this kind of gap is made obvious and a desire and interest is created in the trainees to learn more. When a group of trainees is discussing common problems, everyone tries to think together. In this process, ideas are clarified, systematised, and misunderstandings are cleared.

Discussion groups may be formed among the members of a class or group. The buzz group or discussion team is a favourite example. Members of a class may be asked to form themselves where they sit into groups of four to six and discuss for a specific period of time some question put to them by the instructor. One way to form groups is to have members count off, so that each has a number. When the time limit has expired, a member in each buzz group, who has been selected by that group, may report to the whole group. A summary of all the reports may be accumulated on the blackboard. The instructor may preside over this summarising process, or a member of the class may do it for him. A final whole class discussion, initiated by the instructor, may close the class period.

Another plan is to convert the whole class into a discussion group with the instructor or a class member as leader. The task of the discussion leader is to pose questions, stimulate participation, keep individual participants from monopolising time, keep them on the subject, make occasional summaries, and make a

final summary. An instructor can stimulate discussion by presenting to a class or group a mock quiz of multiple choice or true-false questions. Instead of grading the trainees, he can lead them in a discussion of points on which the group was in disagreement or had had a misunderstanding.

A necessary precaution is to keep the discussion from becoming a debate. One often hears people arguing or debating with the mistaken impression that they are discussing a topic. The two processes are really very different. One enters discussion with an open mind, expecting to learn something. One enters a debate with a fixed view point, expecting to convince others, or at least to outargue them. The debator is never willing to change his position, but wants only that his position shall prevail over all others.

It is better for an instructor to elicit rational discussion than to let emotional discussion prevail. Discussion is best where all members are thinking rather than just feeling, although students may need to have some discussion just to let off steam and release some of their tension.

There are several other ways of employing the discussion technique. The most common ones are the following:

Panel discussion. A panel is a small group discussing a topic in a large group situation. In these groups, three or four experts, with a chairman to introduce and guide them, discuss an issue or a problem, usually according to a preconceived plan. Panels are excellent for presenting controversial subjects. This technique can be used in class-room and other groups to get the involvement of members.

There is another technique which is an outcome of this technique called opposing panel. In this situation, the group is divided into two groups. One group poses questions, while the other attempts to answer them. The groups formed may not consist of more than five or six persons each. The role of the teacher or the discussion leader is to guide these groups by occasional help in restating questions and answers and by summarising periodically what has been said. A final summary should always come at the end.

When groups engage in the process of phrasing questions and answers, a healthy sense of competition is created, which is very conducive to learning. Trainees with different background and interesting ideas, and who are willing to re-examine their convictions should be chosen as members of the groups. An effort

should be made to get trainees who have a clear and concise manner of speaking and who talk loud enough to be heard. Avoid trainees who are very argumentative. They can wreck a discussion. It is essential for the instructor to talk in advance to the trainees to see that every one has a clear idea of the particular subject to be discussed and its scope. The job of the instructor is to let the trainees do the talking, encourage them to talk to each other, prevent their addressing remarks to him and to keep his view out of the discussion. He should ask challenging questions in order to stimulate thoughtful discussion. The questions asked should involve why and how rather than questions which can be answered yes or no. The instructor should dig out points of difference and points of agreement. He should see that the discussion stays on the subject, that it does not wander aimlessly, and that it moves to some meaningful conclusion. The instructor must summarise from time to time during the discussion and, at the end, call on the members of the panels to help sum up. He must also encourage a balanced participation by interrupting speech-makers. They can wreck a panel discussion.

Symposium

The symposium is made up of a short series of lectures with two to five speakers participating. Usually, it is best to have three speakers having adequate ability. Each one speaks for a definite amount of time, and usually represents a specific phase or sub-division of a general topic. As a rule, the first speaker has the responsibility of presenting the historical background of the subject as well as the particular phase with which he is concerned. The subject does not have to be controversial, as is the case with a debate. Almost any subject that can be handled by a short lecture can be used for a symposium. For the symposium, the topic should be large enough or general enough to permit two or more sub-divisions that are sufficiently significant to justify separate discussion by a speaker.

After the talks are given, several ways may be followed for concluding the session. In some cases, the symposium ends after the major presentations have been made. In others, speakers may make brief remarks, after which a forum follows, in which the other trainees participate. A brief summary may or may not be made by the teacher or discussion leader who acts as the chairman.

The pattern of communication in the symposium without a forum is essentially the same as that for the lecture, except that there are two or three lecturers instead of one. As a method of presentation, the symposium has the advantage over the lecture in that two or more persons have the opportunity to present different phases of a topic. It also has an advantage over the debate in that it is possible to escape antagonism that may accompany a debate. The symposium can be used to give an overall picture of a complicated topic or project to trainees.

Forum

The forum has been mentioned as a discussion period that may follow any one of the above methods of presentation. A forum can be organised in a class-room situation in the form of a small meeting at which the subject is introduced through one or two brief formal presentations by members of the class, who observe the limit of time set by the leader. There must be time-limits for comments from the trainees so that the forum may not turn out to be but a series of speeches.

There are various ways of conducting a forum. In some cases, the speakers receive the questions directly from the members of the class and answer them. Many times, it is desirable to have the leader repeat the question from the trainees before the speakers answer them. This not only makes it possible for all of the trainees to hear what the question is, but also allows the speaker a little time in which to formulate his answer. Sometimes, a forum is conducted by having one trainee ask all the questions, but this is likely to be a dialogue in which other trainees may feel left out. Unless the trainee asking the questions has some way of receiving questions suggested from other members of the class, it really will not be a forum. There are times when it is wise for the leader of discussion to turn the questions back to the class for it to answer. The leader should be consulted only for new information when it is needed in considering certain questions.

The forum provides an opportunity for members to clear up obscure points and to raise questions for additional information. It also gives individuals an opportunity to state briefly their understanding of a point and see whether they have interpreted the material presented correctly. The teaching objective of a forum is to build interest.

The Socio-drama

This is also an effective technique of developing interest and getting participation of trainees in a class. In this situation, the trainees act out a realistic situation just as if they were the persons involved.

In a socio-drama, the first step is to select a specific problem situation. The problem should be selected to fit the needs of the particular group or class. Their interest will be in terms of things they want to know. Trainees may be selected either by the volunteer or assignment method. The characters should be given large name cards. This helps keep them in role and in position, and enables others to call them by name without hesitation.

There are two major types of socio-drama, actualisation and role-playing. Actualisation consists of acting out a particular situation with the actors being themselves in character throughout. This type is effective in testing various group methods and in observing group processes for increasing efficiency in a group. Role-playing may be three types: role reversal, character role-playing and position role-playing.

In role reversal, group members are given the roles of those persons with whom they usually interact. For example, a young person becomes a parent, or a parent becomes a child; an employer becomes an employee or an employee becomes an employer; a student becomes a teacher or a teacher becomes a student. This is one way to get another person's point of view and to look at one's own as it probably appears to him. This technique of seeing the other fellow's side and seeing oneself as he sees is effective in problem-solving and in encouraging self-improvement. No one tells what is wrong: one sees it.

In character role-playing, the participant becomes a specific character, other than himself, and in the situation acts as he thinks that particular character would act in that situation.

Position role-playing is like character role-playing, except that the facts about the person are not given and are left for the one playing the role to fill in as he interprets them. He is simply told that he is a teacher, a father, a student or a salesman and proceeds from there. The type of socio-drama to select depends upon the purpose for which it is to be utilised.

Teacher or Leadership Problems

As mentioned earlier, the teacher in a class-room situation

is a leader. He faces the same problems faced by the leader of any group. Problems usually arise in relation to a particular group or class. There is, therefore, no one solution to these problems. A solution that will work with one group and in one situation may not necessarily be effective with another similar group or in another situation. It is important, therefore, for teachers to analyse the problems against the background of the specific class they are teaching and the class-room situation with which they are dealing.

The following are some of the problems a teacher or a leader faces most frequently in class-room and other group situations.

Group regulations and instructions. It is wise for a class of trainees to formulate its standing rules and practices. If this is a long list, it is best to have it printed and made available to all. In this way, each trainee is informed of the regulations. It is difficult to formulate a long list of specific regulations that can always be enforced without exceptions. Rules are designed primarily to enable a group to do its work effectively and harmoniously. This problem may be handled by reviewing and revising the rules from time to time. Regulations are usually best stated in terms of general principles which hold, even though specific rules may have to be changed. In administering the regulations and rules within the group, the teacher or leader must be democratic in their application to all members.

There are many occasions during the period of training for the teacher to give instructions or directions for carrying out some project. In a group situation, it is best to give these in positive terms rather than in negative ones. A group can be told not to do many things and still not have an idea of what has to be done. Instructions or suggestions should be given in a natural tone of voice and stated as explicitly as possible. Too many instructions or suggestions should not be given at any one time, because it is difficult for persons to keep them clearly in mind. Contradictory instructions should never be given. Perhaps the best policy for a leader or teacher to follow in formulating instructions is to make them so clear that, when the trainees follow them carefully, they cannot but reach the objective.

How to give and take criticism. A leader or teacher is likely to receive criticism from a group now and then, just as there are

occasions where it is necessary for him to give it. In adult education, the first response to criticism is ordinarily resentment and a desire to defend. This is normal, because the trainees or the teacher may not like to lose face before members of the class or group. The teacher's responsibility is to analyse the criticism to determine in what ways it is valid and how he may benefit from it. "A leader in a democratic society can invite and receive criticism without losing status with the group. In fact, in many groups he can increase his status by so doing, thus indicating his willingness to learn and improve his leadership role. One who invites criticism must train himself to receive it calmly and objectively, otherwise the group will not take his invitation seriously a second time."[1]

When a teacher is giving criticism while playing the role of discussion leader, he should make it clear to the trainee being reproved that this is not a personal grudge on his part, but rather that he is giving the reproof as a result of his leadership role in which he is representing the group. Before offering criticism, a teacher should be sure that he has all the evidence. If he is angry, he should postpone the criticism until he has calmed down sufficiently to discuss the situation fairly and impersonally rather than emotionally. As a general rule, it is best to give criticism in private. By giving reproval privately and making sure he is democratic in offering criticism, the leader will go a long way towards maintaining friendly relationship between himself and his followers.

Giving praise and recognition. Praise is an effective way of influencing others. Most people respond favourably to compliments. Some teachers or leaders give praise so indiscriminately that it does not produce favourable results.

Lack of participation. This problem is raised more often than others. Occasionally it is associated with a group that is declining. One may find that lack of participation is associated with a lack of activities that are of interest to the trainees. Whenever the range of interests in a group is narrowed down, there is the possibility that only a small number of trainees will be deeply concerned about them. Increased participation may be achieved often by enlarging the scope of work of the group so as to include interests which have some appeal to a large number of trainees.

1. *L. M. Hepple.* Group Organisation and Leadership in Rural Life. Lucas Brothers Publishers, Columbia, Missouri, 1956.

Conclusion

The foregoing discussion has dealt with some of the possibilities of identifying and training local leaders and of working through them. In rural extension, it is very important to utilise local leaders in planning and carrying out programmes. One of the objectives is to develop leadership ability among local people. There is no denying the need of motivating or stimulating village people to participate in new community undertakings; but before people can be motivated, they must be reached; and one very effective way of reaching rural people is through locally organised leaders.

One basic conclusion that emerges is that an extension worker should properly study potential local leaders in their local setting. This enables him to identify the key places where the discussions are really made, and to trace the channel of communication which carries the flow of decisions to the individual units of a community. Having insight into this flow-line, it is possible for him to introduce the element of change directly into the established channels, thereby reaching and influencing every constituent of a community more effectively than could be expected by a process of trial and error.

If extension workers are to extend educational programmes to reach more people, and if the programmes are to achieve their objectives, they must exercise to the fullest the leadership role and increase their effectiveness in the use and development of local leadership and group activity. The methods have wide application in field and in class-room situations. Used in the right way, in the right situation, with the right subject and with the right group, they can be powerful forces in the promotion of training.

Selected References

Art of Leadership. Ordway Tead, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1935.

Community Development in India. V. T. Krishnamachari, The Publications Division, Government of India, Delhi, 1958.

Community Organisation. Murray G. Ross, Harper, New York, 1955.

Cooperative Extension Work, L .D. Kelsey and C. C. Hearne, Comstock Publishing Associates, Ithaca, New York, 1949.

Cultivation of Community Leadership. W. W. Biddle, Harper, New York, 1953.

Developing Professional Leadership in Extension Education. J. Paul Leagans, Extension Publication No. 3, New York State College of Agriculture, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York, 1952.

Experiment in Extension—The Gaon Sathi. Allahabad Agricultural Institute, Oxford University Press, 1956.

Group-centered Leadership. Thomas Gordon, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1955.

Group Organisation and Leadership in Rural Life. L. M. Hepple, Lucas Brothers Publishers, Columbia, Missouri, 1946.

Group Leadership and Democratic Action. F. S. Haiman, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1950.

Guide-book Developed at the 9th All India Work Seminar. Directorate of Extension, Government of India, New Delhi, 1959.

Guide to Community Development. Ministry of Community Development and Cooperation, Government of India, New Delhi, 1957.

How to Develop Better Leaders. Malcolm and Hulda Knowles, Associate Press, New York, 1955.

Leadership for Rural Life. D. Sanderson, Associate Press, New York, 1948.

Making Communities Better. I. T. Sanders, University of Kentucky Press, 1953.

Technique of Building Personal Leadership. Lair, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1944.

CHAPTER XIX

THE COMMUNICATION PROCESS

J. Paul Leagans

THE WORLD HAS never seen a time when the role of the communicator has been as important as it is today. This is so because the world has never seen a time when there was so much to know, so much people need to know, and so many who want to know so much, and so quickly. Certainly, in rural development, nothing is more important than the transfer of useful ideas from one person to another. In this process of communication lies the potential for millions of village people to overcome ignorance, poverty and disease, and to attain a status of economic and social well-being.

The overriding challenge to extension educators is to have ideas useful to an audience, to make their meaning clear, to get them accepted, and to motivate people to adopt and practise them. The extension educator accepts both a grave and an exciting responsibility; grave in the sense that the welfare of people, and often their very lives, depend upon his skill in conceiving and executing effective rural development programmes; exciting in the sense that he is a part of a great educational movement to help masses of rural people improve their social and economic status.

To a large degree, the success of an extension worker is determined by his ability to communicate good ideas to others. To those who would go out and work effectively in the field of Extension Education for Community Development, let it be clear then, that the central challenge is to help village people put useful knowledge to work for them. This requires effective communication.

Once the basic elements in the communication process and their relation to the task of rural development are understood,

extension workers confidently can move forward along right lines with action to improve their communication skills.

Communicators, Scientists and Administrators

Extension educators as communicators, scientists as discoverers of truth and administrators as managers of programmes form a team that must be cast in the forefront of all schemes for rural development. "The future of a country is in the hands of three men—the investigator, the interpreter and the administrator. But there is a shortage of responsible interpreters—men who can effectively play mediator between specialists and laymen. Science owes its effective ministry as much to the interpretative as to the creative mind. The investigator advances knowledge, the interpreter advances progress. A dozen fields of thought are today congested with the knowledge that the physical and social sciences have unearthed and the whole tone and temper of rural life can be lifted by putting this knowledge into general circulation. But where are the interpreters with the training and willingness to think their way through this knowledge and translate it into the language of villagers?"[1]

The scientist seeks to discover truth and expand the boundaries of verified knowledge in his specialised field. The extension educator has the task of combining the knowledge of science with the knowledge of the needs, aspirations and limitations of rural people, and of designing techniques to communicate this knowledge so that it improves their economic and social welfare. Improvements may vary from producing higher yields of crops or better quality of livestock, to preparing more nutritious family meals or more attractive home conditions, to developing community spirit and skill in leadership. Thus, while the scientist uncovers basic knowledge, the extension educator creates methods for communicating it to people and the administrator provides conditions that enable both the scientist and the communicator to play their role effectively.

In the knowledge of technology lies the content an extension educator must communicate to people. In the knowledge of the extension educational process lies the foundation upon which he must build effective plans for communicating technology useful in attaining the goals of economic and social advancement of

1. Paraphrased from a statement by Glenn Frank in *The Spirit and Philosophy of Extension Work*. Graduate School, U.S. Department of Agriculture and Epsilon Sigma Phi. Washington D.C. 1952, page 335.

villagers. In a broad sense, the extension educator derives from his knowledge of technology and extension processes, the principles and content from which he synthesises a system of communication to achieve educational objectives. Hence, the extension worker as a communicator is the member of the team who creatively adapts the findings of science to the needs of people and devises communication schemes that enable them to understand technology and put it to work. The communicator, the scientist and the administrator are, therefore, the central actors in the modern drama of rural uplift. Working together in many countries, they have enabled rural people to take great strides toward a more satisfying life. Potentially, under proper conditions, they can, in India and elsewhere, help people create a society free from basic needs.

Nature and Importance of Communication

Communication is the process by which two or more people exchange ideas, facts, feelings or impressions in ways that each gains a common understanding of the meaning, intent and use of messages. The term communication stems from the Latin word communis—meaning common. Communication, then, is a conscious attempt to share information, ideas, attitudes and the like with others. In essence it is the act of getting a *sender* and a *receiver* tuned together for a particular message, or a series of messages. "Communication means the movement of knowledge to people in such ways that they act on that knowledge to achieve some useful result. This result may range all the way from a small improvement in doing some productive task, to the generation of a sense of national unity and strength in a country. Communication in this sense includes the whole learning process. It encompasses the teacher—the message or material to be taught—the means or media used to carry the message—the treatment given by those media—the learning achieved by the audience or student—and the actions by which the learning is put into practice."[1]

Good communication, therefore, is the essence of good extension teaching. One has not taught if he has not communicated.

1. *Gerald F. Winfield*. The Multiplier in Technical Cooperation. International Cooperation Administration, Washington D.C., Vol. II, No. 11. August 1957.

Communication is essential to all human association. One's ability to influence others is closely linked with one's ability to communicate one's ideas. The essence of learning is the gaining of the meaning of new ideas in relation to recognised problems. For two or more people to engage in a common, cooperative effort, they must be able to communicate with each other. To strive toward common goals, they must have a body of common knowledge and ideas.

The central task of Village Level Workers and other Block staff members is to promote common bodies of knowledge, attitudes and skills among villagers that will help them make economic and social improvements. To teach and lead villagers to understand, accept and "put new knowledge to work for them" is a gigantic task and one that requires great communicative ability. It must be remembered that the pay off in village extension work comes only when the villager acts on new knowledge—not when he has merely been exposed to it. Diffusing knowledge is a relatively easy task. Getting people to understand, accept and apply it is the difficult one. At this point, Community Development presents its greatest challenge. At this point, the good Village Level Worker is separated from the less good one. Good subject-matter and effective communication are the keys to successful extension teaching in the villages.

Good communication does not consist merely of giving orders, but of creating understanding. It does not consist merely of imparting knowledge, but of helping people gain a clear view of the meaning of knowledge. Most of the progress in the future will stem from better technology and greater skill in communicating it to others. Economic and social change will occur to large numbers of people only when Village Level Workers and other Block staff have effectively communicated useful ideas to them in ways they can be understood and put to use.

Leadership in training centres, Blocks and villages needs to do a better job of communication. It is often said that the message of Community Development has not yet been communicated to the villagers. Much misunderstanding results from faulty communication. Too many people saying the wrong things at the wrong time, in the wrong way, to the wrong people, slows down progress. What is needed is more people saying the right things at the right time, in the right way, to the right people. This is the formula for good communication.

Communication Problems and Critical Factors

One can stumble only when one is in motion. But this key fact of motion is often overlooked in communication. Communication is a process. Process is an act of proceeding—a series of actions or operations definitely conducing to a desired end. Each episode of communication has at least three phases: (1) expression, (2) interpretation and (3) response. What these are is the crucial point in communication. If the expression is not clear, the interpretation accurate and the response proper, one's effort to communicate will not succeed. It is one thing to express ideas, even to get information to people, but quite another to get ideas widely interpreted as intended and responded to as desired. In short, it is easy to control what one's expressions say or mean, but difficult to control how an audience interprets and responds to them.

In a continuing human relationship, successive cycles of communication have a cumulative meaning and effect. Every human relationship is always in a state of change. It is constantly getting better or worse. Unfortunately, all change is not necessarily progress. For, progress results from change only in desirable directions. There are powerful forces that tend to slow down changes in people's behaviour. To overcome these forces, a powerful communication effort by extension workers must be constantly exerted. Progress sometimes is as difficult for rural development workers to achieve as it is for a swimmer to make his way upstream in a swift current.

From the foregoing propositions emerge some key problems and critical factors of communication in programmes for change. Fortunately for the extension worker, there are things known about communication that when understood will help him communicate more effectively. Some of these are:

1. *Communication is limited by one's concept of the communication process.* There are many different ways of using or thinking about communication. Some of these are the concepts held by: (a) the rhetoricians; (b) the linguists—about vocabulary, grammar, writing; (c) the reading experts, and more recently, the listening specialists; (d) the journalists; (e) the broadcasters; (f) the public relations and advertising experts; (g) the leaders in group dynamics and group discussion; (h) the visual experts—about photography, moving pictures and other visual aids; (i) the experts in speech-making—about

conversation, interviewing, debate; (j) the artists; (k) the general semanticists; (l) the social scientists; (m) the communication engineers; and (n) the administrators. A common mistake committed by these groups is the identification of the part with the whole, or the 'parts fallacy.' Successful communication in programmes of rural development is not a single unit act. It requires a series of unit acts planned to assure effective sequence and integration. It starts with the recognition of needs which new ideas can help meet and proceeds until people have acted upon them. Hence, Extension Education for Community Development requires the total act of communicating. Extension educators, therefore, must skilfully combine the unit acts into an integrated whole. For, it is only when this is done that they can influence large numbers of village people to substantially change their behaviour. The way one thinks about communication will influence its quality.

2. *Communication is a two-way process always involving interaction between those who are aspiring to communicate and the receivers.* It is not an unloading of ideas on another person or group—a one-way affair. Hence, expression is only one aspect of communication. It is not enough, therefore, just to tell or demonstrate to a person or group how something should be done or why it is important. Extension workers must make an audience understand clearly what is to be learned and what it should do about it. Questions and comments by the receiver and observation of his behaviour are good ways to tell if one has really communicated. Direct questioning by the communicator, establishing a friendly environment and a permissive climate are others among the many methods for making communication a two-way road to learning. The two-way process is necessary to assure that information presented is interpreted as intended. Without this the response cannot be as desired, because the respondent cannot know exactly the kind of action expected of him.

3. *One must have ideas before one can communicate with others.* One must communicate about things that exist, that are real, and as the audience sees them. A crucial point to remember is that what a person thinks is true, is

true to him. And he will act accordingly until what he thinks true is disproved and the real truth accepted by him. Implied here is the fact that people must be willing to listen, negotiate, arbitrate and discuss, so that communication takes place. Not only must one have ideas, but one must also know how to organise them and present them clearly, forcefully, accurately and adequately. In considering ideas to communicate, one should not cling always to what one knows is so, but pay some attention to what the audience thinks is so. Unfortunately, public opinion is based primarily on what people think is so.

4. *The system of symbols used to represent ideas, objects or concepts must be accurate and used skilfully.* Practically all communication, especially that involving complex and abstract ideas, is done by the use of symbols. A symbol is a substitute for a real object. It is the abstraction of an idea. It is the symbol which when understood conveys meaning, by reason of relationship, association or conventional use. The use of symbols is necessary because of two primary reasons: (a) the inconvenience, impracticability or impossibility of having real objects always available when one wishes to convey ideas and (b) many abstract ideas can hardly be made clear except by the use of symbols. The qualities of a good cow, for example, could best be communicated by having present the real object—a high quality cow. But to make clear the concept of a village development plan would require dependence largely on word and visual symbols. For these reasons, man early invented language as a means, vocal or other, of expressing or communicating his feelings or thoughts. More recently, people concerned with communication have created a wide range of devices referred to as visual and audio-visual aids. All of these are symbols in one form or other employed to express ideas or feelings through sound, shape, colour or motion.

The crucial point in the use of symbols to convey ideas is to select those that accurately represent the idea to be conveyed and are understood by the audience. Symbols are meaningful to a person only when he understands what they stand for. For example, the symbols used in statistics or other forms of mathematics

mean nothing to him until he understands the object, concept or action they represent. Likewise, word symbols to which an audience is unable to attach meaning do not communicate. Furthermore, visual symbols, either in the form of words, colours, shapes or motions, must be chosen so as to (1) represent the ideas they are expected to convey and (2) be readily understood by the audience. Without these conditions no communication results.

The basic means of communication is words. But communicators must avoid putting an ocean of words into a drop of thought. Words are usually more effective when supported by other forms of symbols that also communicate, such as the many forms of visual aids. Complex human thought cannot usually be communicated except through the use of words. Words link together all human association, and form connecting links in every human relation. The effectiveness of extension workers, therefore, is ultimately determined by their skill in manipulating words and other symbols that convey useful ideas.

Since words are the primary medium of communication, it is important that extension workers be aware of several important facts about words. Words, like other symbols, are not reality, they are only symbols or shades of reality. One has to attach reality to them. This is the process of gaining an understanding of the meaning of words and other symbols. How many words are there? The number, of course, differs according to the language considered. For example, the most comprehensive dictionary of modern English contains close to 1,000,000 words. This fact means that there are up to one million symbols available in the English language for conveying ideas. As already mentioned, however, word symbols have no meaning to a listener unless he perceives in his experience the object or idea the word symbolises. For example, how many Indian farmers grasp the meaning of pH, trace element, etc., when talking with them about soils? What do the words 'community development' or 'social education' or 'research findings' really mean to a villager in terms of objects, processes, or actions that affect him?

Not only must word symbols, and all others, be selected and used that convey meaning to a learner, but it can be expected that the symbols used may convey different meanings to different persons. Not only complex words, but even common ones thought to have only one meaning are often misleading. For example, the word 'run' has been found to have over 800 different meanings, and the word 'table' has more than 14 different

meanings, when used as a noun. Speaking words, then, is more than making a series of sounds; it is an attempt to convey to listeners a series of associations that have meaning and significance to them. Hence, all symbols used to communicate ideas must be so chosen and used as to convey mental images to which the audience can attach realistic meaning in terms of useful behavioural change.

5. *Cultural values and the social organisation are determinants of communication.* These tend to differ from one culture to another and within them. Hence, knowledge of ideas and action which the value system will accept, and which it will be likely to reject, along with the channels of communication established by the particular social organisation are essential to effective communication.
6. *The environment created by the communicator influences his effectiveness.* The physical facilities, air of friendliness, respect for others' views, recognition of accomplishments of others, permissiveness and rapport in general are all important ingredients of a climate conducive to effective communication.
7. *To make sense, the communication effort must be organised according to some specific form or pattern.* In this fact lies the reason for often labelling the unorganised efforts to communicate as nonsense. Organisation may be informal, as a conversation or a discussion, or formal as a speech or lecture. Other common forms are: a story, a play, a debate, a report, a bulletin, a poster, a panel discussion, etc. Whatever the form chosen, the facts to be presented must be organised so as to enable the audience to gain a unified understanding of the message. Common ways of organising a presentation are: (a) chronological—historical, or as events took place; (b) logical—as ideas emerge from, or give rise to another; (c) psychological— timing or ordering of ideas according to the anticipated reaction of an audience.
8. *Cooperation, participation and involvement are essential to communication.* It takes two to make communication. As pointed out before, communication is a two-way process. It is not just speaking or writing to another person or persons. The respondent must cooperate in listening and responding. There must be

interaction between the individuals involved. Both the communicator and the receiver must be brought into the act. Hence, the listener must work a little too. For, it is what he does mentally or physically in the form of reaction to the content presented that he really learns, not what the communicator does. Learning is an active process on the part of the learner. The communicator, then, can talk or act with great skill, but if the mind of the receiver is tuned in elsewhere, what is being said or done really makes no difference. Unless the respondent is on the same wave length, the character of what is sent out hardly governs the communication process. So, it takes two to make communication.[1]

9. *Standards of communication influence its success.* Standards of communication have to do with the rules or criteria, established by authority, custom or general use, found to be effective as guides to communication. There are several concepts or standards related to the quality of communication. Four primary ones are:

   (a) Standard of *correctness.* This involves the use of correct words or other symbols, correct logic and correct content or facts.

   (b) Standard of *effectiveness.* This relates to the interaction, understanding, meaning, behavioural changes, achievement of objectives, etc., that result from communication.

   (c) Standard of *good taste.* This pertains to the importance of keeping action, content and method compatible with the social code of the society.

   (d) Standard of *social responsibility.* This infers that when one communicates one assumes responsibility for the effect of one's communication on the respondents and the society. No one of these standards alone will provide the basis for evaluating communication. All four standards must be given consideration.

10. *Evaluation is necessary to improve communication.* Evaluation is the process of finding out what happened as a result of communication. Communicators need to

1. For further elaboration of this idea, see: *Irving J. Lee.* How to Talk Well. Harper and Brothers, New York, 1952, page 17.

know if their expressions were effective, if they were interpreted correctly and what kinds and amounts of response resulted. This knowledge is necessary as a basis for making changes needed to improve subsequent acts of communication. Such information may be attained in several ways, either formally or informally. Informal checks may be made through direct questions, conversation and observable reactions with members of the audience. Formal evaluation may be made through the use of surveys in many different forms, attitude tests, information tests, etc. Without information about whether respondents received the message, understood it, accepted it and took the action recommended, one cannot know 'how he is doing' or take intelligent action to improve one's effectiveness.

The foregoing are only some of the critical factors that exert control over efforts to communicate. In addition to these, extension workers interested in improving their communication skill should give thought to others including : (a) planning their communication, (b) adapting content and method to the needs, interests and level of ability of the audience, and (c) timing so that given points can and will be communicated for maximum effectiveness.

A proper consideration and understanding of all these critical factors and problem areas in communication provides a sound basis for improving one's expression, getting it interpreted as intended, and responded to as desired—in short, improving communication.

Key Elements of Communication

The primary purpose of communication in Extension Education for Community Development is to achieve learning that results in desirable changes in people's behaviour. In education programmes of this type, it is assumed that people will continue their present ways of thinking and doing until they have a new learning experience that causes them to reject the present modes of behaviour and adopt new ones. It is assumed also that to cause people to accept new modes of thinking and acting specified by a programme requires some form of incentives, and that it is necessary for a person to develop a greater incentive to adopt recommended modes of behaviour than is offered by the continuation of present ones.

In this context, the crucial task of communication in programmes of change is to lay powerful incentives to change before people who need to make changes in their way of living. Success at this task requires a thorough understanding of the principles and elements of communication and high-level skill in their use on the part of all extension workers.

Successful communication in Extension Education requires a skilful *communicator* sending a useful *message* through proper *channels,* effectively *treated* to an appropriate *audience* that *responds* as desired. The communication task thus consists of the skilful handling of these six key elements. These elements will now be considered in the light of the guides already mentioned and in an attempt to show their singular function, their relationship to each other and how they are to be dealt with in the total process of communication for rural development.

1. The Communicator

This is the person who starts the process of communication in operation. He is the source or originator of messages. He is the sender of messages. He is the first to give expression to messages intended to reach an audience in a manner that results in correct interpretation and desirable response. The communicator may be a Village Level Worker, a principal or an instructor in a Training Centre, a Block Extension Officer, a villager, an administrator or any other person.

A key factor influencing the effectiveness of communication is the source of the message, or the person who originates and sends the message. The credibility of the communicator as perceived by the audience is a powerful determinant in communication. Who is he? What are his motives? What does he know? What are his attitudes and skills? What does he look like? How does he act, write and speak? Is his purpose to impart information that really helps, or is it to show off his knowledge? Questions like these and many others often enter the mind of people when brought in contact with a communicator. They add up to a challenge to his credibility, of which prestige is a major factor, and confidence the determinant. When a communicator does not hold the confidence of his audience, communication as conceived in this analysis will not take place.

Fortunately, there are some things a communicator can do to improve, if not raise to a high level, his credibility in the eyes

of his audience and hence enable him to become a more effective communicator.

The following are the good qualities of a good communicator.

1. *He knows :*
   (a) his objectives—has them specifically defined ;
   (b) his audience—its needs, interests, abilities, pre-dispositions ;
   (c) his message—its content, validity, usefulness, importance ;
   (d) channels that will reach the audience and their usefulness ;
   (e) how to organise and treat his message ;
   (f) his professional abilities and limitations.
2. *He is interested in :*
   (a) his audience and its welfare ;
   (b) his message and how it can help people ;
   (c) the results of communication and their evaluation ;
   (d) the communication process ;
   (e) the communication channels—their proper use and limitation ;
   (f) how to improve his communication skill.
3. *He prepares :*
   (a) a plan for communication—a teaching plan ;
   (b) communication materials and equipment ;
   (c) a plan for evaluation of results.
4. *He has skill in :*
   (a) selecting messages ;
   (b) treating messages ;
   (c) expressing messages—verbal and written ;
   (d) the selection and use of channels ;
   (e) understanding his audience ;
   (f) collecting evidence of results.

The foregoing are well-tested ways a communicator engaged in Extension Education can help assure an acceptable degree of success. Good communicators have, or soon develop, a high level of professional ability on these critical points. In contrast, poor communicators allow certain behaviour to block their success. They often are guilty of one or more of the following :

1. Fail to have ideas to present that are really useful to the audience.
2. Fail to give the complete story and show its relationship to people's problems.

3. Forget that time and energy are needed to absorb the material presented.
4. Feel they are always clearly understood.
5. Refuse to adjust to 'closed' minds.
6. Talk while others are not listening.
7. Get far too ahead of audience understanding.
8. Fail to recognise others' view-point and develop presentation accordingly.
9. Fail to recognise that communication is a two-way process.
10. Let their own biases over-influence the presentation.
11. Fail to see that everyone understands questions brought up for discussion.
12. Fail to provide a permissive atmosphere.
13. Disregard the values, customs, prejudices and habits of people with whom they attempt to communicate.
14. Fail to start where people are, with respect to knowledge, skill, interest and need.

An effective communicator assumes that his audience is intelligent, that he has a useful message, and that his audience is, or can be made, interested in it. He recognises that what is true in the view of given persons, is true to them. Consequently, he assumes that everyone tries to do the right thing as they see it. He tries to view what he is doing from the standpoint of his audience. He recognises that his message must get through. He communicates for clear understanding and desirable action by his audience, for it is only with this achievement that communication is successful.

2. Message or Content

Effective communication in Extension Education for Community Development is assumed to be a matter of promoting learning. This being accepted, it must be further assumed that communications offer something useful to be learned. Learning cannot go on in a vacuum. It requires content or subject-matter. Something must be learned when learning takes place. Communication, therefore, must have a message to convey to an audience.

A message is the information a communicator wishes his audience to receive, understand, accept and act upon. Messages, for example, may consist of statements of scientific facts about agriculture, sanitation or nutrition ; description of action being

taken by individuals, groups or committees ; reasons why certain kinds of action should be taken ; or steps necessary in taking given kinds of action. Potential messages range as wide as the content of the programmes is.

Messages are not precisely the same as the subject-matter or technology conveyed. They are rather a generalised idea of what the subject-matter says. For example, 'fertiliser when used properly increases crop yield' or 'by washing rice properly its food value is retained.' These statements represent messages a communicator may wish an audience to receive, accept and act upon. Subject-matter that supports such messages, which may take from thirty minutes to two hours or more to convey, simply consits of facts that support or justify the propositions. The newspaper headline, the minister's text, the advertiser's repeated statement about his product are all forms of messages based on a body of content assumed to support their validity.

If after exposure to a communication one feels like remarking 'so what ?' or 'I don't get the point,' or 'where do we go from here ?' he has not received the message. The missed signal could be caused by his poor attention, but more likely the cause of incomplete communication can be found in what the communicator did, or did not do. The chances are high that it was buried in a mass of words and was never identified clearly, even by the communicator. In any event, the message did not get through to the receiver. The key objective of communication, first and always, is to transmit useful messages so that all receivers understand them clearly.

Messages related to programmes of change are, therefore, the relevant 'cargo' to be carried to people by the channels of communication. They are the important content, sometimes referred to as 'arguments,' 'appeals' and 'stimuli.' Whether messages operate effectively as incentives to changed behaviour in any given situation depends on a wide range of influences. A successful communication is one in which the major factors influencing the message are controlled as far as possible. This is the responsibility of the communicator.

A good message must be :

1. in line with the objective to be attained ;
2. clear—understandable by the audience ;
3. in line with the mental, social, economic and physical capabilities of the audience ;

4. significant—economically, socially or aesthetically to the needs, interests and values of the audience;
5. specific—no irrelevant material;
6. simply stated—covering only one point at a time;
7. accurate—scientifically sound, factual and current;
8. timely—especially when seasonal factors are important and issues current;
9. supported by factual material covering both sides of the argument;
10. appropriate to the channel selected;
11. appealing and attractive to the audience—having utility, immediate use;
12. applicable—audience can apply recommendation;
13. adequate—combining principle and practice in effective proportion;
14. manageable—can be handled by the communicator with high professional skill and within the limits imposed by time.

Applied properly, the foregoing criteria for selecting and sending messages will contribute much to the goodness of the message. Effective communicators use them skilfully. In contrast, poor communicators often do the following:

1. Fail to clearly separate the key message from the supporting content or subject-matter.
2. Fail to prepare and organise their message properly.
3. Use inaccurate or 'fuzzy' symbols—words, visuals, or real objects—to represent the message.
4. Fail to select messages that are sharply in line with the felt needs of the audience.
5. Fail to present the message objectively—present the material, often biased, to support only one side of the proposition.
6. Fail to view the message from the standpoint of the audience.
7. Fail to time the message properly within a presentation or within a total programme.

Selecting and 'packaging' messages so they have a good chance of being understood, accepted and acted upon when received is a crucial step in the communication process. It is one of the six keys to success in efforts to influence people to change their ways of thinking and of doing, that lead to social and economic improvement. Messages are the content aspects

of educational change that is assumed to be desirable in Extension Education for Community Development.

3. Channels of Communication

The sender and the receiver of messages must be connected or 'tuned' with each other. For this purpose, channels of communication are necessary. They are the physical bridges between the sender and the receiver of messages—the avenues between a communicator and an audience on which messages travel to and fro. They are the transmission lines used for carrying messages to their destination. Thus, the channels serve as essential tools of the communicator.

A channel may be anything used by a sender of messages to connect him with intended receivers. The crucial point is that he must get in contact with his audience. The message must get through. Common channels of communication in the extension situation include meetings of all kinds, radio, books, bulletins, letters, newspapers, organised tours and personal contacts. Others may be added to this list such as telephone, television, leaders at work, etc. All of these make it possible for a communicator to transmit his message to the intended audience.

But channels are no good without careful direction or use in the right way, at the right time, to do the right job for the right purpose with the right audience, all in relation to the right message. So, proper selection and use of channels constitutes a third determinant of successful communication. Without proper use of channels, messages, no matter how important, will not get through to the intended audience. Regardless of effort, no communication can take place until and unless the audience receives the message. To mention these obvious facts is virtually to insult the amateur communicator, but not the skilful one who is truly aware of the complexities involved in message transmission.

Many obstructions can enter channels. These are often referred to as 'noise'—that is, some obstruction that prevents the message from being heard by or carried over clearly to the audience. 'Noise' emerges from a wide range of sources and causes. The following are some of these :

1. *Failure of a channel to reach the intended audience.* Usually, no one channel will reach an entire audience. Some examples : *Meetings*—all people cannot or may not

attend. *Radio*—all people do not have access to a receiving set or may not be tuned in if they did. *Written material*—many people cannot read, and others may not.

2. *Failure on the part of a communicator to handle channels skilfully.* If a meeting, tour, radio programme or any other channel is not used according to good procedure and technique, its potential for carrying a message is dissipated. For example, in a meeting when everyone cannot hear what is said and see what is shown, they cannot receive the message.
3. *Failure to select channels appropriate to the objective of a communicator.* All channels are not equally useful in attaining a specific objective. For example, if an objective were to *show* a certain group of people how to do something—dig a compost pit, build a sanitary latrine, treat seed, cook vegetables, etc.—the radio, circular letter, or newspaper would not do the job. Obviously, the channel needed is a method demonstration meeting. On the other hand, if an objective were to give general information about subjects like the above or to inform people of events etc., radio, letters and newspapers would be the proper channels to use (see also Chapter XIII).
4. *Failure to use channels in accordance with the abilities of the audience.* Written materials, for example, cannot serve as useful channels for communicating information to people who are unable to read or to understand the level of complexity or abstraction of the message.
5. *Failure to avoid physical distraction.* When using the channel of meetings, for example, distractions including people moving in and out, loud noises in or out of the group, heat, lighting, crowded condition and many other forms of distraction often obstruct successful message sending. Static on the radio, poor writing, unattractive exhibits are other examples of 'noise' that lessen the effectiveness of channels.
6. *Failure of an audience to listen or look carefully.* The only messages that get through to an audience are those which are heard, seen or experienced. An unfortunate tendency of people is not to give undivided attention to

the communicator. This is a powerful obstruction that prevents messages from reaching their desired destination.

7. *Failure to use enough channels in parallel.* The more channels a communicator uses in parallel or at about the same time, the more chances he has for the message getting through and being properly received. No single channel will ordinarily reach all people who need to receive a message. Research indicates that up to five or six channels used in combination are often necessary to get a message through to large numbers of people with enough impact to influence significant changes in behaviour.
8. *Use of too many channels in a series.* An important principle of communication is that the more channels used in a series the less chance a communicator has for getting his message through to the intended audience. Let it be assumed for example, that a Block Development Officer originates a message he wishes to communicate to a sizeable number of local cultivators. The series of channels could be about as follows: Block Development Officer communicates the message to the Agriculture Extension Officer, who in turn communicates it to the Village Level Worker, who in turn communicates it to a village leader, who in turn *is asked* to communicate it to a number of local cultivators. The use of such a series of channels raises two grave questions: (a) Did the message ever really reach its intended destination? (b) Did it reach with the same content and intent as the original? The following two important principles emerge from this example: (1) The more steps by which the communicator is removed from his intended receiver, the greater are his chances of losing the proper message. (2) When lines of communication get too long for assured communication they can be improved in two primary ways: (a) by using additional channels in parallel, and (b) by eliminating some of the channels in the series.

Successful communicators prevent the blockage or 'noise' affecting channels of communication that emerge from one or more of the foregoing conditions. There are many others that communicators in various situations have to learn how to deal with. These examples, however, should make clear the nature

and significance of the problem of 'noise' effecting communication channels.

To help overcome some of the problems just enumerated and others not mentioned, one should take the following factors into account :

1. The specific objective of the message.
2. The nature of the message—degree of directness *versus* abstractness, level of difficulty, scope, timing, etc.
3. The audience—size, need, interest, knowledge of the subject, etc.
4. Channels available that will reach the audience, or parts of it.
5. How channels can be combined and used in parallel.
6. How channels that must be used in a series can be reduced to the minimum, and those used made effective without fail.
7. Relative cost of channels in relation to anticipated effectiveness.
8. Time available—communicator and audience.
9. Extent of *seeing, hearing* or *doing* that is necessary to get the message through.
10. Extent of cumulative effect or impact on the audience necessary to promote action.

The foregoing are some of the proven guides to handling communication channels in ways that they deliver the message. It must be remembered that messages undelivered do not promote the desired response. Channels are the connecting links between communicators and receivers. They must effectively join together these two essential elements of the communication process.

4. Treatment of Messages

Up to this point, we have characterised three of the six elements of communication, namely, communicators, channels, and messages. Now the question is how to *treat* the messages so they can be sent over channels with the maximum probability of reaching their destination effectively.

Treatment has to do with the way a message is handled to get the information across to an audience. It relates to the technique, or details of procedure, or manner of performance, essential to expertness in presenting messages. Hence, treatment deals with the design of methods for presenting messages.

Designing the methods for treating messages does not relate to formulation of the message or to the selection of channels, but to the technique employed for presentation within the situation provided by a message and a channel.

The purpose of treatment is to make the message clear, understandable and realistic to the audience. Designing treatment usually requires original thinking, deep insight into the principles of human behaviour and skill in creating and using refined techniques of message presentation. At this point, the effective teacher is separated from the less effective one, and the art of teaching comes into play. Great teachers are adequate in all ways, but are superb in their ability to 'treat' messages.

Treatment of messages can be varied in an almost infinite number of ways. The following are the three categories of bases useful for varying treatment.

A. *Matters of general organisation :*

1. Repetition or frequency of mention of ideas and concepts.
2. Contrast of ideas.
3. Chronological—compared to logical, compared to psychological.
4. Presenting one side compared to two sides of an issue.
5. Emotional compared to logical appeals.
6. Starting with strong arguments compared to saving them until the end of presentation.
7. Inductive compared to deductive.
.8 Proceeding from the general to the specific and *vice versa.*
9. Explicitly drawing conclusions compared to leaving conclusions implicit for the audience to draw.

B. *Matters of speaking and acting :*

1. Limit the scope of presentation to a few basic ideas and to the time allotted. Too many ideas at one time are confusing.
2. Be yourself. You can't be anyone else. Strive to be clear, not clever.
3. Know the facts. Fuzziness means sure death to a message.
4. Don't read your speech. People have more respect for a communicator who is sure of his subject.
5. Know the audience. Each audience has its own personality. Be responsive to it.
6. Avoid being condescending. Do not talk or act *down*

to people, or *over* their heads. Remember, good treatment or messages result in hitting the 'bull's eye,' not the surrounding terrain. Never over-estimate the knowledge of an audience or underestimate its intelligence.

7. Decide on the dramatic effect desired. In addition to the content of messages, a communicator should be concerned with 'showmanship.' Effective treatment requires sincerity, smoothness, enthusiasm, warmth, flexibility and appropriateness of voice, gestures, movements and tempo.
8. Use alternative communicators when appropriate, as in group discussions, panels, interviews, etc.
9. Remember that audience appeal is a psychological bridge to getting a message delivered.
10. Quit on time. Communicators who stop when they are 'finished' are rewarded by audience goodwill.

C. *Matters of symbol variation and devices for representing ideas :*

1. Word symbols—speech.
2. Real objects.
3. Models.
4. Specimens.
5. Photographs.
6. Graphs.
7. Charts.
8. Motion pictures.
9. Slides.
10. Drama.
11. Puppets.
12. Songs.
13. Flash cards, etc.

The foregoing list of suggested possibilities for message treatment can be extended and the techniques used in an almost infinite number of combinations. Communicators should be aware that treating messages to achieve maximum audience impact is a highly professional task. How to do it is not given in books. The task cannot be reduced to a formula or recipe. Treatment is a creative task that has to be 'tailor-made' for each instance of communication. For this task, the suggestions in this Section should be helpful. Experience will help, thinking and planning will help, skill in verbalisation and writing will help, an understanding of the principle of teaching and learning will help,

knowledge of the subject, the audience to be reached and skill in the use of channels will help. But one has to develop an insight and judgement in all of these areas in the design of skilful treatment. The problem can be solved by hard work, study, planning, revision, practice, and a serious mission and concern for effectiveness and achievement.

It should be remembered that people respond best to messages that are reliable, realistic, relevant and understandable. Regardless of reliability, messages will not be accepted until they are understood. Treatment that makes messages understandable must be clear rather than just clever. It must make the ideas specific and concrete. How well one sells his ideas depends on how clearly one presents them. How words or other forms of symbols selected to convey ideas are strung together effects, clarity and understanding. Variation of sentence length and pattern prevents monotony. The appearance of the communicator affects effectiveness. "Life is a mirror ; if you frown at it, it frowns back ; if you smile, it returns the greeting."

5. The Audience

Obviously, an audience is the intended receiver of messages. It is the consumer of messages. It is the intended respondent in message-sending, and is assumed to be in a position to gain economically, socially or in other ways by responding to the message in particular ways. In good communication, the audience aimed at is already identified by the communicator. The 'pay off' in communication is dependent on what the audience *does* in response to messages.

An audience may consist of one person or many. It may comprise men, women, or both ; youth groups, villagers or their leaders. An audience may be formed according to occupation groups as farmers or artisans ; professional groups, as engineers, educators, administrators ; special assignment groups, as Block Development Officers, Extension Officers, Village Level Workers. Many other categories may be used to delineate audiences, including geographical location, age, special interest, need, economic status, social status and educational status. People make the categories, and communicators must identify them. Otherwise, they do not know where their target is, or what it is like.

The importance of clearly identifying an audience cannot

be over-stressed. The more homogeneous an audience, the greater the chances of successful communication. Likewise, the more a communicator knows about his audience and can pinpoint its characteristics the more likely he is to make an impact. An audience is found by identifying categories such as those previously mentioned.

A communicator first accepts an audience the way it is—as he finds it. He then proceeds with attempts to move it toward his objective. Hence, both the audience and the objective must be precisely identified. It is useful to guide what one is doing from the view point of one's audience. People do not like unexplained intentions. If the audience and its view point is not clear, it is necessary to search for them until they are clear. Without this knowledge a communicator cannot move forward with assurance and success.

In the attempts to identify an audience, it is useful to find out (1) the potential audience, (2) the available audience and (3) the active audience, physical and psychological. At the primary level, there are only two audiences : (a) the one a communicator intends to reach or the *intended* audience, and (b) all others in the geographical area, or the *unintended* audience. In the intended audience, there are usually at least four groups : (1) listeners or attenders who act on the message, (2) listeners or attenders who do not act, (3) listeners or attenders, and (4) non-listeners or non-attenders. To the extent that an intended audience can properly be divided into these four categories in a descending order from 1 to 4 after an effort to communicate has been made, the effort is not successful.

In addition to knowing the identity of an audience and some of its general characteristics, there are other somewhat more specified aspects that help to clarify the exact nature of an audience and how to reach it. The following are some of these :

1. Communication channels established by the social organisation.
2. The system of values held by the audience—what they think is important.
3. Forces influencing group conformity—custom, tradition, etc.
4. Individual personality factors—susceptibility to change etc.
5. Native and acquired abilities.
6. Educational, economic and social levels.

7. Pressure of occupational responsibility—how busy or concerned they are.
8. People's needs as they see them, and as the professional communicator sees them.
9. Why the audience is in need of changed ways of thinking, feeling and doing.
10. How the audience views the situation.

It is useful to a communicator to understand these and other traits of an audience in making his plan for communication. He should keep in mind that audience participation is voluntary in free-choice societies. Consequently, if he does not transmit useful messages, make their meanings clear, and persuade an audience to accept them, the respondents will neither act nor long participate in the programme. Like the marksman, unless a communicator sees his target clearly, he can shoot a thousand rounds, and yet accomplish nothing.

6. Audience Response

This is the terminating element in communication applied to rural development programmes. Some students of communication do not identify audience response as a separate element, but would rather include it as an integral function of the audience. This arrangement is valid and in order. In applying the communication process to rural development, however, the author feels that the importance of immediate action by people is such that separate identification of this element is both appropriate and useful for purposes of clarity and special emphasis.

Response by an audience to messages received is in the form of some kind of action to some degree, mentally or physically. Action, therefore, should be viewed as a product, not as a process; it should be dealt with as an end, not as a means. Consequently, the five elements we have just analysed—communicator, message, channel, treatment, audience—are intended to be viewed as an organised scheme (means) for attaining the desired action (end) on the part of an intended audience. Action taken by an intended audience that can be attributed to a given communicative act by an extension worker may properly be assumed to be a result of the degree to which these elements have been effective.

Let it be assumed, then, that through the means of planned communication, an intended audience has received a useful message, that it has understood the meaning and intent of the message, interpreted it properly, and that it has generally

accepted the message. The question that remains then will be: Did the audience act in response to the message? If so, what kind of action took place, by whom, and to what extent?

Until the desired action results, programmes of change do not achieve their most essential objective. In evaluating effectiveness, therefore, the important criterion or standard for judging the programme is the nature and extent of action taken by people who needed to act. For, it is *what the people do* as a result of participation, *not what the programme staff does* that is of transcendent importance in programmes of change. Hence, the resources used and activities carried on in the name of Extension Education or communication for Community Development are only means to ends, not the ends themselves. The ends sought are desirable actions resulting from effective educational changes in people who need to modify their mode of thinking, feeling and doing.

The message of Community Development is intended for action now, not later. It is for adoption immediately, not for storing away for use some time in the future. Immediate use is crucial for two important reasons: (1) the first need for change is now, and (2) messages are selected and designed to fit *today's* needs. Messages for tomorrow will need to be different because the problems will be different. A message valid today, therefore, will not be altogether valid in the future. New ones will need to be created and old ones modified as time passes and progress is made. Change is inevitable.

After receiving a message, it may be generally expected that audience response will be widely varied. This is particularly so when messages are not of an emergency nature, as the respondents view them. And most messages carried in rural development programmes are not emergent in form and intent.

The number of possible kinds and degrees of response to messages received are almost infinite. The following gives an idea of possible variety in response that may result when a useful message is received by a typical village audience of Indian cultivators.

1. *Understanding* vs. *knowledge*. Knowledge of facts alone does not constitute understanding. It is only the first step. Understanding is attained only when one is able to attach meaning to facts, see the relationship of facts to each other and to the whole of a proposition and the relationship of the total body of facts to the problem

under consideration. Communicative effort often fails because it stops simply with laying facts before people and does not continue in a systematic way to promote an understanding of the facts presented. People usually do not act on facts alone, but only when an understanding of facts is gained. Communication must promote understanding.

2. *Acceptance* vs. *rejection*. A free, alert and thinking human mind requires that understanding precede acceptance of facts and propositions. In turn, it insists on mental acceptance before resorting to action. For it is what human beings come to believe, not what they merely know or even understand, that determines what they do when they are free to act as they choose.
3. *Remembering* vs. *forgetting*. When opportunity for action is not immediately available or action is delayed, the factor of forgetting what was learned influences the kind and extent of action taken at any point of time in the future. This basic principle has extensive implications for timing in communication programmes. Transmitting the right message to the right people at the right time is often a crucial factor in successful communication.
4. *Mental* vs. *physical action*. Changes in the mind of man must always precede changes in the actions of his hands. In short, man's mind controls his overt behaviour. Consequently, a message suggesting physical action could receive all the mental action required, except the final decision to act. This is sometimes referred to as 'lip service.'
5. *Right* vs. *wrong*. The intent of a communication is to promote desirable action by an audience as determined by the communicator and expressed in his objectives. Consequently, resulting action in line with the intended objectives is assumed to be 'right' action. But the problem is more complex. Unfortunately, 'noise' often plays mischief at this point. For a variety of reasons, people often fail to behave precisely according to instructions, even when they understand and accept them. Assume, for example, that a message giving five steps in seed-treatment has been transmitted to a group of cultivators. Assume further that the cultivators

> understood, accepted and acted on the message. But the results were disastrous. This was because the cultivators, contrary to instruction, decided among themselves that if the use of one ounce of the chemical in treating a maund of grain (as instructed) was good, two ounces would be better. Individually and in groups, human beings have their own ideas about how to act.

The many kinds of possible behaviour are mentioned here only to illustrate the range of response that may result when a message is received by an audience. The possible range can be made clear by considering additional items and the dimension of extent or degree along with kinds of action. Merely getting action, then, is not enough for successful communication. Good communication requires action of a specified kind and extent.

From these propositions it may be recognised that response or action resulting from a communication is a complicated phenomenon and has to be considered with care and preciseness. It is complex because human behaviour is complex. It is important because the pay off in programmes of change comes only as people act differently and in desirable directions.

So, communicators engaged in promoting rural development must be concerned not only with process but with product; not only with means, but with ends attained. Progress requires refutation of the *status quo* and building a more desirable situation in its place. This requires action by people who need to make changes in what they think, feel and do. The statement is axiomatic that continuation of the means in programmes of change is justified only by the product they produce. The ultimate question that may be asked about the elements of communication, therefore, is : *Who* communicates *what*, to *whom*, for what *purpose*, by which *media*, with what *results*?

Conclusion

Communication is essential to all human association. One's ability to influence others is closely linked with one's ability to communicate useful ideas. For two or more people to engage in a common cooperative effort, they must be able to communicate with each other. To reach common goals they must have a body of common knowledge and ideas. Communication is the process by which two or more people exchange ideas, facts, feelings, impressions, and the like in a manner that the receiver gains a clear understanding of the meaning, intent and use of

the message. Good communication is the essence of good leadership. One cannot lead if one cannot communicate. It is one thing to extend information to people but quite another to be certain the information is accepted, understood and acted upon—not just received. It is easy to control what communications say but difficult to control what the audience receives and concludes from them.

Problems in communication usually stem from such things as the language used, the meaning of words and other symbols used to convey ideas, specificity, selecting and organising messages, treating messages, using channels of communication, knowing one's audience, developing an understanding of facts, and helping people recognise the importance of facts and their relationship to problems. It is the impact on people that is the all-important consideration in communication.

The key role of communication in any form is to plant new ideas in the minds of men. Extension Education for Community Development is dedicated to this task. The success of rural development programmes directly depends on the transfer of useful ideas from a reliable source to people who need them. The transfer must be made in such a way that when received the ideas result in action. This is the task of communication in Community Development.

Handled well, the communication process can enable millions of village people through the power of Extension Education to lift themselves through their own efforts from a state of ignorance, poverty and disease to one of economic, social and moral well-being.

Of all the influences to which man is subject, the influence of ideas is probably the most important. Preparing and distributing the Community Development message to the millions of Indian villagers in ways that it is received, understood, accepted and applied, therefore, is the great opportunity and paramount challenge to all extension workers for Community Development.

Selected References

Art of Plain Talk. Rudolph Flech, Harper, New York, 1946.

Audio-visual Methods in Teaching. E. Dale, Dryden Press, New York, 1954.

Behaviour System. C. L. Hull, Yale University Press, New Haven, 1952.

Common Human Needs. Charlotte Towle, National Association of Social Workers, New York, 1957.

Communication and Persuasion. Janis Howland and Kelley, Yale University Press, New Haven, 1953.

Communications in Modern Society. W. Schramm, University of Illinois Press, 1948.

Communication of Ideas. L. Bryson, Harper, New York, 1957.

Diffusion Process. Beal and Bahlen, Special Report No. 18, Extension Service, Iowa State College, Ames, 1957.

Experiments in Mass Communication. Hovland and Sheffield, Princeton University Press, 1949.

Extension Teaching Methods. Wilson and Gallup, Extension Service Circular 495, Federal Extension Service, USDA, Washington D.C. 1955.

Fundamentals of Social Psychology. Hartley and Hartley, Knopf, New York, 1952.

Guide to Community Development. Ministry of Community Development and Cooperation, Government of India, New Delhi, 1959.

How to Talk Well. James F. Bender, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1954.

How to Talk With People. Irving Lee. Harper, New York, 1952.

Informal Adult Education. Malcolmn S. Knowles. Association Press, New York, 1950.

Mass Persuasion R. K. Merton, Harper, New York, 1946.

Power of Words. Stewart Chase, Harcourt Brace, New York, 1957.

Psychology of Teaching. Henry P. Smith, Prentice Hall, New York, 1954.

Public Opinion and Propaganda. L. W. Doab, Halt, New York, 1948.

Reporting Agriculture. William B. Ward, Comstock Publishing Associates, Cornell University Press, Ithaca, New York, 1952.

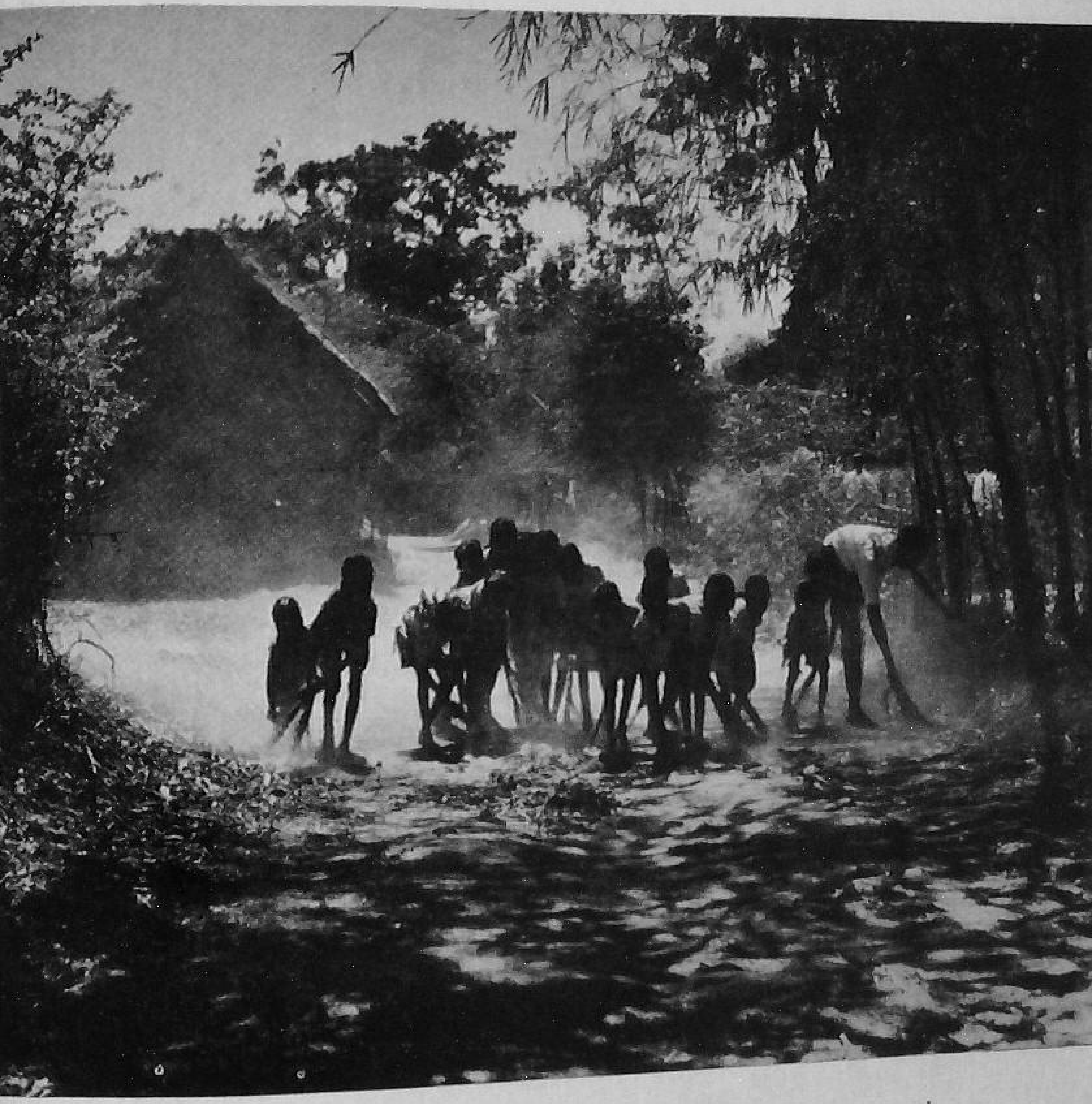
Speech, Code, Meaning and Communication. Black and Moore. 1955.

Successful Teaching—Its Psychological Principles. James L. Mursell, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1954.

Using Visuals in Agricultural Extension Programmes. Series No. 4, United States International Cooperation Administration, Washington.

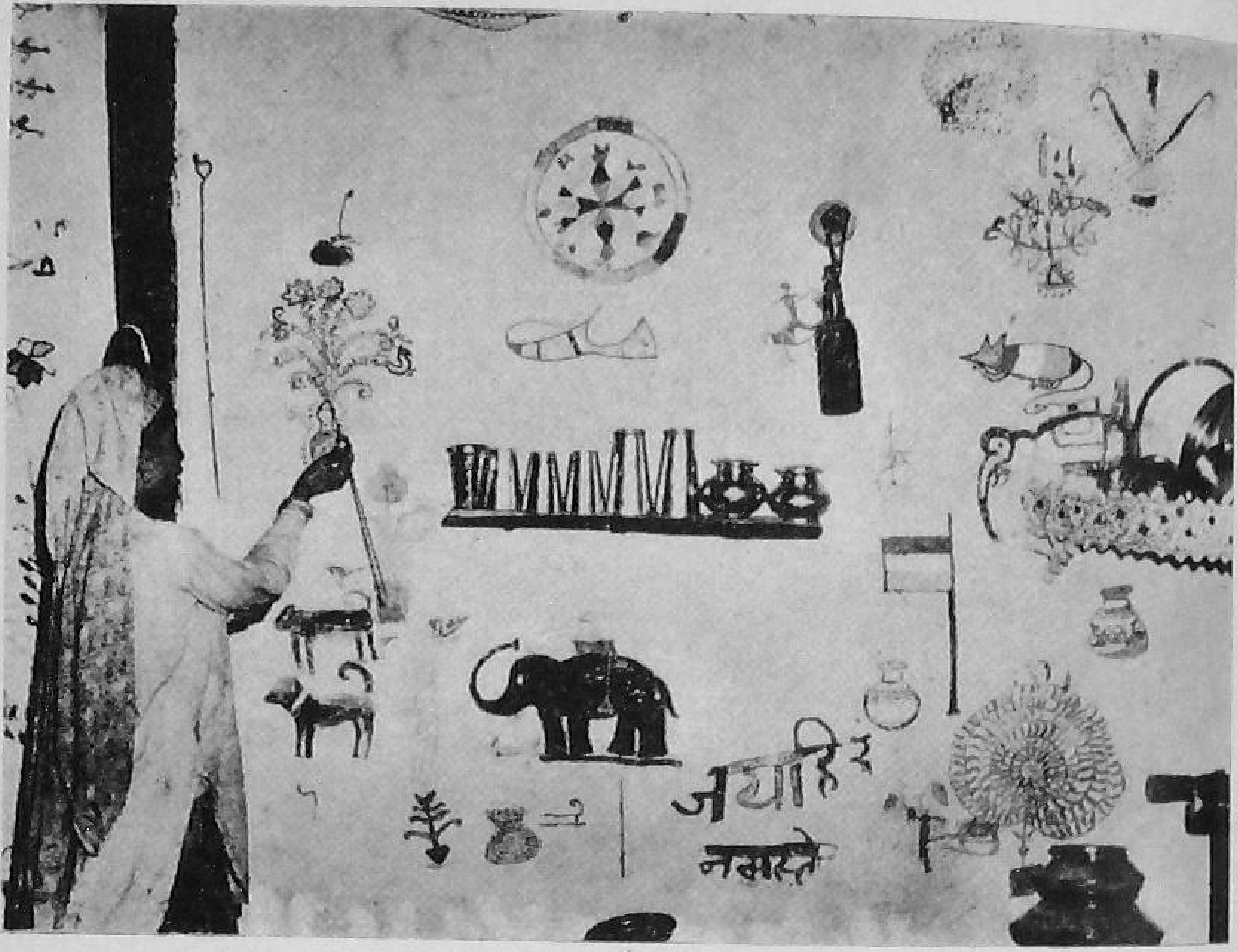
PART FOUR

RELATED ACTIVITIES



Members of a rural youth club in Orissa launch a clean-up-the-village campaign

Rural youth can respond to the needs of the country if they are offered fruitful opportunities for growing up as useful citizens. The rural youth club programme in India aims to be a specialised educational enterprise for providing them opportunities for developing their physical, mental, moral and social standards.



A rural home-maker from the Punjab decorating the interior of her home in the traditional way

Rural home-makers may be illiterate but they are not ignorant of their responsibilities, their work and their obligations. Home Science Extension workers must learn from village housewives and exchange ideas and share their scientific knowledge with them.

CHAPTER XX

THE LIBRARY IN EXTENSION TRAINING CENTRES

K. Venugopal

THE OBJECT OF a library as understood today is to assemble, preserve and administer books and related educational material in an organised manner to promote enlightenment through guidance and stimulation. The inner core of a library is knowledge—knowledge of the world preserved, cherished and made available more and more in a useful and pleasurable form.

All the Extension Training Centres in India are having libraries. But to step up the quality of training imparted in these centres, it is necessary to have a more efficient library service.

A library in an Extension Training Centre should provide adequate material to the instructors and trainees to support class-room teaching, and should help widen their knowledge. It should also help them in developing a reading habit and finding out solutions to their problems.

The library, although forming a part of the institution, is an institution by itself. It should, therefore, satisfy some accepted criteria. These criteria are as follows.

A. The library should be placed in charge of a librarian who is intelligent, has professional knowledge and is courteous.

B. The library should be so located that it is easily accessible, conspicuous, well ventilated and airy, and in neat and quiet surroundings.

C. The library should have ample space to house all the collections of books, journals, etc.

   1. It should provide a floor space of 25 square feet per reader.

2. Adequate space should be available for the office of the librarian, the work and the store room.
3. At least one-fourth of the trainees at the centre should find accommodation in the library at any one time.

D. The library should be equipped with standard furniture designed for efficiency, comfort, attractiveness and durability. It should have adequate lighting arrangements.

E. Books and other materials in a library should be classified by following a scientific system like Dewy's decimal classification.

F. A card index (title-wise, subject-wise and author-wise) should be made of all the books available in the library.

Besides books on the subjects dealt with in the centre, the library in an Extension Training Centre should have reference books on other related subjects like Extension Education, rural sociology, educational psychology, cultural anthropology, personnel administration and agricultural economics. Journals, bulletins, pamphlets in all these subjects should form an integral part of the library.

Similarly, audio-visual aids such as photographs, films, filmstrips, charts, posters, etc., have a place of importance in the library.

Selected books and periodicals on history, poetry, religion, general knowledge, fiction, sports, fine arts and other subjects in which the trainees are interested should also find a place in the library.

The arrangement of books, journals, etc., in the library depends to a large extent on the librarian and the facilities of space and materials made available to him. However, the following are a few general suggestions that may be kept in view.

1. Books should be kept on one side of the room in shelves or in cupboards without locks.
2. Separate tables should be reserved for journals.
3. Reference books should be kept in separate shelves.
4. A separate corner for audio-visuals and picture files should be provided.
5. Pamphlets should be kept separately after classifying them subject-wise.
6. Provision for a bulletin board, a display rack and a newspaper stand should be made.

Every library should follow the borrower's card system for the issue of books. Two books should be issued at a time for a ten-day period. This period may be extended for another week if there is no demand for that particular book.

Books from the reference shelf should normally be issued only for use in the library. In the event of a holiday or holidays, the reference books can be issued to the trainees subject to the condition that they are returned in the first hour of the first working day following the holidays.

The work-day schedule in most of the Extension Training Centres is of eight hours. The library should open half an hour before the classes begin, and should be kept open throughout the day when the classes are at work and at least for one hour after the classes are over. The important point is to have the library open any time the students need to use it.

Books and other material in the library should be carefully protected from insects, rain and such other factors. This can generally be done by adopting the following safety measures.

1. Books should be stored in vermin-proof cupboards. However, every now and then, DDT or 'Spraylon' should be used for protecting the books against insects. Depending upon the facilities available, fumigation of books and cupboards may also be done.
2. Books which show signs of deterioration should be attended to.
3. The cupboards should be kept away from the windows so that they are not exposed to rain.
4. Adequate arrangements for fire-fighting should be made.
5. Lost books should be replaced as early as possible.

Organisation and Supervision

A library in an educational institution should be viewed as an investment and not as an expense. Attempts should be made, therefore, to get returns on this investment. This may be done in part through the formation of a library committee made up of a congenial proportion of students and staff members. This library committee may arrange to obtain the requirements of books, journals, etc., through:

a. consultation with subject-matter specialists,
b. reference to book reviews appearing in the various scientific journals and newspapers,

c. reference to bibliographies furnished by various research institutes,
d. visits to libraries attached to other institutions, universities, etc.,
e. reference to ministries of the state and central government,
f. reference to catalogues of publishers, and
g. reference to the cumulative book index.

The following are some steps which are helpful in getting a full use of the library.

1. Students' assistance may be sought in the daily working of the library, as it gives the trainees the necessary experience in its management.
2. The open access system with proper check points may be introduced.
3. A library hour should be provided for in the time-table.
4. Symposia may be arranged in the library hall on the importance of libraries. Some libraries also conduct essay contests, reading competitions, quiz programmes and general knowledge tests.

Use by Trainees

Trainees in the Extension Training Centres have to make the best use of the library they have. Orienting them and motivating them to use the library is the responsibility of the staff members. The following are a few suggestions in this respect.

1. The first step to be taken in orienting new trainees in the use of the library is to arrange conducted tours of the library and to explain them the general arrangements of the library, the issue method, the reserve book system, etc. These conducted tours should be guided by the librarian as well as by other members of the staff.
2. In planning library assignments, the following should be kept in mind.
   a. A period or two can be assigned during a week for library work.
   b. The teacher may prepare reviews of important books, mimograph them first and circulate them to all the trainees.

c. The teacher may arrange a group discussion by assigning a definite topic well in advance and furnishing the requisite reference material. This procedure may be followed at least once a month.

d. The teacher may provide references to the trainees during a lesson, and check whether they have referred to them, in subsequent classes.

e. In all probability, there may be a few trainees who are unable to understand or who do not have adequate reading ability. To help them in library assignments is a problem. The teacher may, therefore, prepare a digest of the recommended references in the regional language. He may also make use of audio-visual aids which form a part of the library equipment in addition to books, journals, etc.

Conclusion

Keeping in view what has been said about the library, its contents, physical facilities, arrangements, organisation, supervision, care and upkeep, it should be remembered that "books are the masters who instruct us without rods and rules, without hard words and anger. If you approach them they are not asleep ; if while investigating you interrogate them, they conceal nothing ; if you mistake them, they never grumble ; if you are ignorant, they cannot laugh at you. The library of wisdom is more precious than all the riches, and nothing that can be wished for is worthy to be compared with it. Whosoever, therefore, acknowledges himself to be a zealous follower of truth, of happiness, of wisdom, of science, must of necessity make himself a lover of books." The library is their house. The trainees and staff of the Training Centres should visit it often and enjoy its hospitality and fruits.

c. reference to bibliographies furnished by various research institutes,
d. visits to libraries attached to other institutions, universities, etc.,
e. reference to ministries of the state and central government,
f. reference to catalogues of publishers, and
g. reference to the cumulative book index.

The following are some steps which are helpful in getting a full use of the library.

1. Students' assistance may be sought in the daily working of the library, as it gives the trainees the necessary experience in its management.
2. The open access system with proper check points may be introduced.
3. A library hour should be provided for in the time-table.
4. Symposia may be arranged in the library hall on the importance of libraries. Some libraries also conduct essay contests, reading competitions, quiz programmes and general knowledge tests.

Use by Trainees

Trainees in the Extension Training Centres have to make the best use of the library they have. Orienting them and motivating them to use the library is the responsibility of the staff members. The following are a few suggestions in this respect.

1. The first step to be taken in orienting new trainees in the use of the library is to arrange conducted tours of the library and to explain them the general arrangements of the library, the issue method, the reserve book system, etc. These conducted tours should be guided by the librarian as well as by other members of the staff.
2. In planning library assignments, the following should be kept in mind.
   a. A period or two can be assigned during a week for library work.
   b. The teacher may prepare reviews of important books, mimograph them first and circulate them to all the trainees.

c. The teacher may arrange a group discussion by assigning a definite topic well in advance and furnishing the requisite reference material. This procedure may be followed at least once a month.
d. The teacher may provide references to the trainees during a lesson, and check whether they have referred to them, in subsequent classes.
e. In all probability, there may be a few trainees who are unable to understand or who do not have adequate reading ability. To help them in library assignments is a problem. The teacher may, therefore, prepare a digest of the recommended references in the regional language. He may also make use of audio-visual aids which form a part of the library equipment in addition to books, journals, etc.

Conclusion

Keeping in view what has been said about the library, its contents, physical facilities, arrangements, organisation, supervision, care and upkeep, it should be remembered that "books are the masters who instruct us without rods and rules, without hard words and anger. If you approach them they are not asleep; if while investigating you interrogate them, they conceal nothing; if you mistake them, they never grumble; if you are ignorant, they cannot laugh at you. The library of wisdom is more precious than all the riches, and nothing that can be wished for is worthy to be compared with it. Whosoever, therefore, acknowledges himself to be a zealous follower of truth, of happiness, of wisdom, of science, must of necessity make himself a lover of books." The library is their house. The trainees and staff of the Training Centres should visit it often and enjoy its hospitality and fruits.

CHAPTER XXI

HOME SCIENCE IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Rajammal P. Devadas

THE HOME AND the family are the yardsticks of measuring the progress of any nation. It is the home that caters to the physical, spiritual and emotional needs of its members. It provides a suitable environment for children to grow up, and for adults to lead a useful life. By building the character of its members and ensuring their happiness, the home influences the individual and the community in better living. Citizenship, respect for others, contentment, health, character and efficiency in work are all obtained through sound home-living. Since life in the home affects the very foundation of an individual's future, education for home-living, i.e. home science, should be made available to all people—men and women, at all stages of life.

Home science is education for home and community living. Its goals are abundant happiness, health and fulfilment of the aspirations of the family. Home science deals with the daily activities in the home such as food, clothing, shelter, finance, health, child-care, home beautification and family relationships, and also community service. It has as its bases fine arts such as music, art expression, culture and religion. To understand all aspects of home-living, a knowledge as well as the practical application of basic sciences and art subjects such as physics, chemistry, biology, physiology, bacteriology, economics, sociology, psychology, art and architecture are essential.

Agriculture and Home Science

Agriculture is the basic industry in India. On the production of the land depends the success of the national development plans, growth of industries, enhancement of the living standard, and education and health of the people. Food production is

directly related to the understanding of the farm problems and the efficiency with which rural women tackle them. As rural families learn how to utilise their farm and home resources more efficiently through sound management, they will have more purchasing power and leisure. All this progress is connected with activities in the home. Food supply, food preparation and preservation, health, sanitation, housing, management of income, and child-care are the immediate concern of the family. These have a direct bearing on the potentialities and resources of the homes. Poor nutrition, poor health and lack of sanitation lower the working capacity of people and impede the progress of national development.

The rural home-maker in India is also a farmer. She shares most of the work on the farm with the men, and exercises great influence on farm policies and practices. Gardening, poultry-raising and care of cattle are as much her concern as they are of her husband. Therefore, agriculture should become an important aspect of home science education in the schools and colleges of India.

Contributions of Home Science to the Home and the Family

Home science enables women to establish sound homes. Bringing up children in an atmosphere congenial to their growth and development means moulding them into citizens of the future. But the home does not mean only the four walls of the house. It extends into the community and the nation. Inspiring in the home-makers a desire to serve the nation and to promote international goodwill and understanding is yet another contribution home science makes.

The target set by the nation for attaining agricultural production in the various Plans may be reached and even exceeded, but how far this increased agricultural production is properly utilised for improving the health of the people and for removing their poverty depends on how effectively they are educated in the science of nutrition. Poverty and ignorance are the twin factors responsible for making life miserable because of avoidable sickness. Home science, by spreading the knowledge of better nutrition, housing, hygiene, environmental sanitation, home nursing, mother-craft, infant-care and health habits, contributes towards making the nation healthy and strong.

Clothing is an important item of expenditure in the home. A considerable portion of the family budget is spent on the

purchase of fabrics and the making of garments. Due to improper selection, poor care and storage, fabrics do not last as long as they should. The cloth gets thread-bare before long, colours fade, and fabrics shrink. Many times, money which should have been spent on education, health and recreation is spent on unnecessary items of clothing and jewellery. Home science imparts the essential knowledge about clothing, and thus avoids all waste.

The appreciation of music, art and beauty in the home lifts the soul above the humdrum of everyday life. Through expression of art, a better social relationship is developed. No individual ever lives alone. He or she has to live with other people; this is specially true in India, where the joint family system still exists in many areas. Family relationships are the core of all human problems. People must learn to respect and live happily with each other. Home science helps towards achieving sound family, social and human relationships and teaches the appreciation of art and music. The contribution of home science to intangible human values cannot be measured by an external yardstick. Its influence is inestimable in developing citizenship and qualities essential for democratic living.

Home Science Helps in Community Development

Home science is now well established, not only as an important subject in education, but also as a vital force in Community Development.

The real life of India lies in its more than 500,000 villages, with 80 per cent of the people mainly engaged in agriculture. There are signs of a new awakening in these rural communities. For fulfilling their needs and raising their standards of living, various measures such as increasing agricultural production, industrialisation, irrigation projects, transport facilities and better communications are being planned and executed. Through the community development movement, education for applying the best techniques in agricultural and industrial fields is being imparted. All of these have, no doubt, resulted in the production of greater wealth and satisfaction in the rural communities.

However, increased production does not necessarily mean better living. In India, increased agricultural production, more facilities for education in the rural areas, opening of hospitals and health centres in the villages and better communications by constructing a network of roads have been achieved to some

extent. But these have not resulted in a corresponding improvement in the standards of home living. The reasons are not far to seek. Any attempt at improving the home and communities can and will succeed only when women are given a place in it, when they are convinced about the effectiveness of the programmes and when they are willing to cooperate in efforts to achieve permanent results.

The National Planning Commission has suggested that the annual foodgrain production reach a peak of 110 million tons by the end of the Third Five Year Plan period. This target can be achieved only if women cooperate by playing an important role in the endeavour. To cite an example, it has been estimated that ten per cent of agricultural produce is lost or damaged and rendered unfit for consumption by rats, other rodents and insects. Further wastage occurs in the methods employed in the preparation and consumption of food. Provision of rat-proof and moisture-proof storage facilities in a vast country like India is a colossal problem. But, if women can be taught simple scientific techniques of preservation of food, of conserving seasonal foods, etc., great savings of food will result.

To carry the findings of science to the vast majority of rural families in India, Gram Sevikas are being trained in large numbers. The training includes the several areas of home science such as dietetics, child-care, health and home-management. Thus, home science is serving the community development movement in a variety of ways.

Careers Available in Home Science

Home science, in addition to giving education for home-making—the biggest and noblest of all careers—serves the community in a material sense also. In an expanding society, economic needs have necessitated women to take up careers for earning a living. Home science prepares women to take up a number of careers. While women educated in other subjects are often unemployed after completion of their training, the demand for home science trained personnel as extension workers, research workers, nursery school administrators and social workers is very great, and provides them with good opportunities for earning and at the same time serving the community.

Home Science Extension

The basic foundations for an all-round development of

rural people, which is the aim of extension work, are the farm, the home and the people in them. Since farming is managed by the family, the relationship between farm management and home management is inseparable in agricultural areas throughout the world. Home science extension is, therefore, one facet of the total task of improving rural living which is essential for national progress.

Through home science extension activities, rural women have opportunities to discuss their problems and seek solutions to them. The Gram Sevikas study the needs of rural homemakers and offer them advice in a form easily understandable and applicable. They assist rural families in utilising to the best advantage the fruits of their labour in agricultural production towards improving their nutritional status, health and standards of living.

Training of Home Science Workers for Rural Development

The launching of the Community Projects and the National Extension Service in India revealed the need for a large number of home science trained workers—Gram Sevikas and Mukhya Sevikas—for carrying out home science extension work among women. The Ministry of Food and Agriculture, though its Directorate of Extension, established 27 Home Science Wings in the different states in 1955 to train young women in home science and extension with the specific purpose of turning them into efficient Gram Sevikas. During 1959-60, another 12 Home Science Wings were established. The Ministry of Community Development started 11 centres for training Mukhya Sevikas. Most of the Home Science Wings training Gram Sevikas are integral parts of the Agricultural Extension Training Centres which train Gram Sevaks. In each of these Wings, 40 Gram Sevika trainees undergo a one-year training programme. Each of the Home Science Wings has one Chief and three Assistant Instructors who are trained in home science. They, with the assistance of the staff of the Extension Training Centres, conduct the one-year training programme of Gram Sevikas.

The training programme for Gram Sevikas includes courses in family foods and nutrition, clothing for the family (selection, construction and care of clothing), mother and child-care, housing and management of the home, health and sanitation, handicrafts and cottage industries, agriculture (dairy farming, poultry, bee-keeping, etc.), cooperation, *panchayats*, history and philosophy

of Community Development, Gandhian techniques, *bhoodan*, *sarvodaya* ideals, and extension methods.

After completing the training and acquiring skills in home science extension work, the Gram Sevikas are posted in the villages to live and work with rural families for effecting desirable changes in their attitudes, household work practices, food habits, sanitation and standards of living.

The Role and Functions of the Gram Sevika

An improved rural living depends very much upon the proper assessment, enhancement and utilisation of the available resources. Women being primarily responsible for managing and maintaining the home, need information and assistance for solving their economic and other problems in family and community life. The Gram Sevika is expected to meet this need to some extent.

The main function of the Gram Sevika is to change the attitudes and outlook of the people. To do this, she must first know what types of changes are necessary and then stimulate the rural people to develop a desire for them. For example, the changes may be : overcoming agelong traditions and superstitions regarding foods, introducing new foods, improving cooking methods, bringing in sanitary conditions, changing some of the habits in child-care, or creating leisure opportunities. Changes are possible on a larger basis only through education. Changes in outlook can be effected when people recognise their problems and seek solutions to them.

The role of the Gram Sevika is, therefore, essentially educational. It is to make people aware of their problems and needs and aim towards their fulfilment. Her basic philosophy is to help people help themselves. She works cooperatively with the rural families in helping them analyse their home situations, recognise their problems and find solutions to them. She develops with them programmes aimed at making the desired changes. She supplies information that can help them make changes they feel are desirable—whether building a different type of *choolha*, making a faimily budget, organising a *mahila mandal* for their community, or introducing a new food in the child's diet.

The Gram Sevika brings to the village families results and findings of science and research in a form they can easily understand and apply in their daily lives. In subjects like family finances, nutrition, health, clothing, home improvement and

child-care, many scientific studies are being made. The results of these studies can help raise living standards in rural homes.

The Gram Sevika, besides being the carrier of extension information to the rural people, brings to the attention of the officials and research institutions the problems of the rural homes for working out solutions.

The Gram Sevika works as a member of the family or team of workers in the Block under the guidance of the Block Development Officer. She is directly supervised by the Mukhya Sevika—Woman Social Education Organiser—in the Block. At present, only two Gram Sevikas are posted in each Block. It is not possible for the two Gram Sevikas to cover the vast area of 100 villages assigned to them at one stage. Therefore, a Gram Sevika works with a smaller group of villages (five to ten at a time) which are within walkable distance from her own home.

The Gram Sevika also serves as a liaison between the Block and the rural families. She brings to the notice of rural families the enormous number of facilities now available to them through the Block, schools, health centres, cooperative societies, seed and manure stores, family planning clinics and other agencies. She constantly strives to see that the rural families make the utmost use of these resources. She also sees that women's programmes receive their full share of attention from the Block.

The Gram Sevika shows how women in rural areas can increase their income, improve their health and provide comfort and happiness for better family and community living, and encourages them to take up measures needed to achieve these. To effect an all-round improvement in rural homes, the Gram Sevika's activities are built around some core programmes—food, clothing, health, home management, home crafts and social education, all designed to improve home and community living.

The Gram Sevika shows rural women simple and economical ways of feeding and clothing their families. She assists them in making their homes more comfortable and attractive within their economic standards. She constantly tries to find out ways of winning their confidence and getting them interested in home improvements.

The Gram Sevika gives demonstrations and cooperates with local leaders and Block staff in increasing agricultural production. She organises tours, makes surveys, distributes educational

publications produced by the state and central governments, prepares teaching aids suitable for local use, provides recreational and cultural programmes, trains youth in home improvement and works with all agencies to promote and advance developmental activities through education.

How the Gram Sevika Works

The Gram Sevika's first contact with the rural families is through home visits. She spends a good deal of time with the families trying to find out their needs and problems. She helps the women get acquainted with the programme. She encourages them to ask her questions about family planning, care of the sick, scholarships for children, availability of medical facilities, etc. She makes frequent visits to their homes, and after making successful contacts, organises small groups of home-makers together into *Mahila Mandals, Madhar Sanghams* and clubs, and demonstrates to them how to sew garments, how to prepare or preserve certain seasonal foods and such other useful activities. The home-makers then practise the skills taught in their own homes with their relatives and friends, and discuss the problems arising out of the new ventures. Thus, starting from where the people are, moving slowly, taking one step at a time, inducing in them a desire to change, introducing changes in acceptable ways, teaching by doing, conducting demonstrations on the farms and in the homes, and finding and developing local leadership are some of the extension methods the Gram Sevika practises. She understands the needs of rural women, and plans programmes to suit their situation and environment.

Some of the most pressing needs of rural women are assistance during maternity, better foods, more income and avoidance of waste. The following are some items in which the Gram Sevikas educate village women.

Home Improvement

Objective : To make the homes healthier and more comfortable.

1. Arranging the house neatly.
2. Building and using smokeless *choolhas*.
3. Introducing windows for better ventilation.
4. Saving money by careful planning, avoidance of waste and not buying unnecessary things.

5. Making simple, inexpensive arrangements for storage of foods and household utensils.
6. Constructing simple shelves from waste wood.
7. Making *darris* (carpets), quilts, baskets and similar utility articles for the home.

Feeding the Family

Objective: To make every family self-sufficient in food.

1. Preparing simple nutritious meals with available foods.
2. Using a variety of foods in the daily diet such as sprouted green gram and green leafy vegetables, lessening consumption of cereals, using food supplements.
3. Avoiding wastage of food and nutrients in cooking.
4. Preparing foods suitable for babies while weaning.
5. Kitchen gardening for producing protective foods.
6. Fruit gardening.
7. Preserving seasonal foods.
8. Poultry keeping.
9. Learning simple but quick methods of cooking through the use of indigenous or improvised cookers.
10. Bee-keeping.
11. Increasing milk production through care and management of cows.

Clothing for the Family

Objective: To provide adequate clothing for the family.

1. Sewing garments.
2. Mending clothes.
3. Renovating old clothing.
4. Storing clothing carefully.
5. Washing clothes properly without beating.
6. Carefully selecting and purchasing cloth within the family's income.

Health

Objective: To maintain the family's health.

1. Establishing habits of personal cleanliness.
2. Practising hygienic habits in food.
3. Provision of household medicine box.
4. Insect control.
5. Sanitation of the home and surroundings—use of latrines.

6. Adopting protective measures like inoculation and vaccination.

Child-care

Objective : To bring up children properly.

1. Pre-natal care.
2. Visits to child-care clinics.
3. Understanding the development of children.
4. Making simple toys for children.
5. Planning for children's education.
6. Sending children to schools and *balwadis.*
7. Organising *balwadis.*

Home-crafts

Objective : To make articles of utility, beauty and economic benefit.

1. Using local materials for making articles for home-use.
2. Making articles for sale.

Community Life

Objective : To work harmoniously in teams and groups.

1. Contributing talent and skill to the improvement of the community.
2. Helping families become part of community life.
3. Developing leadership.
4. Organising cultural programmes.
5. Participation in community meals.
6. Arranging excursions for rural women.
7. Social education—literacy.

Through these activities, the Gram Sevika helps rural women organise themselves to solve their problems as a community.

Conclusion

Today, there are in India 1,500 Gram Sevikas in the field. Although this number is small, and a proportionately larger number of villages still remain untouched, the Gram Sevikas have helped to stimulate rural women's interest in home improvement, child-care, better health practices, sanitation, improved kitchen arrangements, storage facilities and clothing construction. Within the short period during which they have been serving rural homes and communities, they have proved that when useful knowledge is available and is directed at meeting the immediate

needs and interests of village women, they are too ready to come forward and learn and put into practice what they have learned to make better homes and communities for them to work and live in.

Selected References

Adult Education for Home Making. L. Belle Pollard, John Wiley & Sons, New York, 1948.

Community Development. Ministry of Community Development and Co-operation, Government of India, New Delhi, 1956.

Education of Women for Citizenship. UNESCO, Atma Ram and Sons, Delhi, 1957.

Gram Sevika, the Village Home Economist. Directorate of Extension, Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Government of India, New Delhi, 1959.

Guide to Community Development. Douglas Ensminger, Ministry of Community Development and Cooperation, Government of India, New Delhi, 1956.

Home Making Around the World. International Cooperation Administration, Washington, 1958.

Home Science Camp. Extension Department, Teacher's College, Sri Ramkrishna Mission Vidyalaya, Coimbatore, 1957.

India's Villages. Srinivas and others, West Bengal Government Press, Calcutta, 1954.

Meaning of Home Science. Rajammal P. Devadas, Shri Avinashilingam Home Science College, Coimbatore, 1958.

Methods of Teaching Home Science. Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College, Coimbatore,. 1958.

Our Women. Swami Vivekananda, Advaita Ashram, 1946.

Proceedings of the First Conference of the Home Science Association of India. The Home Science Association of India, New Delhi, 1952.

Proceedings of the First Biennial Meeting of the Home Science Association of India. Home Science Association of India, New Delhi, 1954.

Proceedings of the Second Biennial Meeting of the Home Science Association of India. Home Science Association of India, New Delhi, 1958.

Proceedings of the Third Biennial Meeting of the Home Science Association of India. Home Science Association of India, New Delhi, 1960.

Report of the Technical Meeting on Home Economics for South East Asia. Home Economics Division, F.A.O., Rome, 1957.

Social Welfare. A monthly published by the Central Social Welfare Board, Government of India, New Delhi.

Teaching Home Science. Rajammal P. Devadas, All-India Council for Secondary Education, 1957.

Text-book of Home Science. Compiled by Rajammal P. Devadas, Directorate of Extension, Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Government of India, New Delhi, 1959.

Training the Gram Sevika. Directorate of Extension, Ministry of Food and Agriculture, New Delhi, 1959.

Women and Village Industries. J. C. Kumarappa, Navjeevan Press, Ahmedabad.

CHAPTER XXII

ORGANISATION AND TRAINING OF RURAL YOUTH

G. S. Vidyarthi

THE PROGRESS AND prosperity of a nation to a very great extent depend on how well trained and disciplined its youth are.

They can respond to the needs of their country "only if they are offered fruitful opportunities for growing up as useful citizens. If they are given careful training, a great majority of them will grow up as individuals—physically, mentally and morally—capable of playing their full part as adult members of our welfare society."[1]

The purpose of organising rural youth clubs in India is to develop young people into better farmers and citizens by equipping them with the best skills, attitudes, habits and values of life so as to bring them up as intelligent, well-informed and productive citizens of the rural community, the state, and the nation.

In India, the rural youth programme was first organised in the 'twenties around Sriniketan in West Bengal by the workers of the Visva Bharati. In 1953-54, experiments were initiated in certain parts of the country to organise rural youth on the pattern of 4-H clubs in the United States of America. The Planning Research and Action Institute, Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh, initiated pilot youth club projects in Balia, Etawah and Saharanpur districts of Uttar Pradesh. Similar programmes were also started in some other states like the Punjab and Mysore. But, so far, the progress has been limited and rural youth activity has not taken deep roots in our village development

1. *H. Sambamurthy.* Organisation and Training of Rural Youth. (Unpublished paper).

programmes. The Ministry of Community Development and Co-operation is now making concerted efforts to organise rural youth clubs as an integrated part of the Block development activities all over the country, and emphasis is now being laid on the organisation of rural youth in the training programme of Gram Sevaks and Gram Sevikas.

Objectives

Broadly stated, the rural youth club programme aims to be a specialised educational enterprise for rural youth for providing them with opportunities for developing their physical, mental, moral and social standards. The specific objectives of the club activities are as follows.

1. Developing in rural youth the qualities and skills of leadership.
2. Providing them with opportunities to build up their character and health.
3. Providing them with technical information about and practice in improved farming and home making, so that they may acquire the necessary skill and understanding in these fields and teach others what they have learnt.
4. Teaching them the value of research, and developing in them a scientific attitude towards the problems of the farm and the home.
5. Training them in cooperative and community action as a means of increasing personal accomplishments and of solving group problems by practising cooperation with others in the community.
6. Teaching them the dignity of labour.

The technique of imparting training to rural youth is based on the principle of learning by doing and earning while learning. To do this, members of the clubs undertake various individual and group projects according to their aptitude and ability, and extension workers provide them with constant guidance in their endeavour. The clubs are concerned with practical economic activities designed to improve the agricultural and rural development practices and also with the cultural and recreational activities to raise the educational level of the members and to foster a community spirit in the villages.

The Social Education Organiser guides the working of youth clubs in a Block. The Village Level Worker undertakes the organisation of these clubs in the villages of his circle.

The following are some general guides which should be kept in view while organising a rural youth club.

1. *Make informal contacts with village leaders and parents of youth.* The first basic step which a rural youth club organiser should take is to contact village leaders and parents of village youth, individually and in groups. Then he should discuss the broad objectives of the programme with them and obtain their consent to start a club in the village. The club will be a success only if the consent of village leaders and parents has been obtained before it is initiated. Parents and local leaders should be often invited for discussion and should be associated with developing future club programmes, even after the club has started functioning. This is very essential for the healthy functioning of the club. The absence of suitable local leadership sometimes constitutes one of the greatest handicaps in the promotion of club activities. The youth club organiser should give serious consideration to make the local leaders interested in the programme.

Similarly, the village school teacher should also be approached. He can make valuable and positive contribution to the organisation and functioning of the club.

2. *Select youth interested and willing to join the club.* When the leaders and parents have agreed to the formation of a youth club, the organiser should informally contact the village youth and discuss with them, individually or in groups, the organisation of a club and the possibility of their joining it. A meeting of those who are willing to join the club may then be held to explain in detail the objectives of the club and the programme to be undertaken.

3. *Associate potential voluntary leaders to guide and assist in the youth programme.* At this stage, it is essential that some potential leaders of the village are associated with the programme to guide and assist in the club activities. The success of the club programme to a very great extent depends on the initiative and lead voluntary leaders give to youngsters in club activities.

4. *Organise meetings of youth, and initiate educational programmes with the aid of films, filmstrips, flannelgraphs, etc.* In the initial stages, contacts with the youth should be maintained through organised meetings and group discussions. In these meetings, the youth club members should be given a broad understanding of the economic and socio-recreational projects

through films, filmstrips, flannelgraphs, puppet shows, folk songs, one-act plays and other visual aids.

5. *Initiate sports and cultural programmes.* In the early stages of organising youth club activity, complex projects should not normally be assigned to youth club members, and the club programme should generally be started with cultural and sports activities. This will provide a common meeting place and give an opportunity to the members to understand other economic projects which they can take up on an individual or group basis.

6. *Select projects and organise a training programme for the club members and voluntary leaders.* When a common understanding about the aims and objectives of the youth club has been reached and the village youth have started taking part in club games, sports and recreational activities, suitable training programmes may then be arranged for them and the local leaders on the projects which they intend to undertake. Such training is very essential to make them skilled and interested in the activity.

7. *Assist club members in planning projects and keeping records.* Club members must be helped in planning the projects they wish to take up as a part of the club work. Extension Officers of agriculture, animal husbandry, and other subject-matter specialists at the Block level should guide and help each member in planning his programme. In the earlier stages, the specialists should create confidence in the club members by pointing out the economic advantages that could be had by undertaking individual and group projects. Members may then willingly extend the club activity to other spheres on their own.

Simple methods should be devised to maintain records of the club work done by each member. A consolidated account of these records, if convenient, may also be maintained by the Secretary of the club. This will provide an opportunity to the members to exchange experience and to learn about the progress of other individuals.

8. *Evaluate the projects.* Evaluation of the projects with simple methods should be done at every stage to apprise the club members of the progress they are making. Simple proformas may be worked out by the Block staff in agreement with the members of the club for undertaking evaluation work.

Constitution of the Club

It is very essential for each club member, who wants to join the club activity, to know the common objectives, the contents

of the programme and the opportunities he or she can get in building himself or herself as a better citizen. Therefore, it is necessary to have a constitution for the club. A model constitution for a rural youth club which was discussed at the Development Commissioners' Conference held at Mysore in 1959 and later examined by Directors of Youth Activities is given below. This constitution can be adopted by rural youth clubs with such local variations as may be found necessary.

Model Constitution of a Rural Youth Club

Article I

This club shall be known as........(name of the village) Rural Youth Club (*Yuvak Mandal*).

Article II

Membership

The membership of the club is voluntary. It is open to all persons in the village belonging to the age group of 13 to 25 years who pay an annual subscription of Rs...(Special efforts should be made to enroll as members all persons belonging to the above age group and especially members of the weaker sections of the community in order to make the club truly representative of the local youth.)

Article III

General Body

The General Body will have full powers to lay down policies, plans and programmes of work. The budget of the year will have to be placed before it for approval and accounts passed in December, every year.

Article IV

Office-bearers

The office-bearers will be duly elected by the General Body. The Executive Committee will comprise the following office-bearers :

(a) President
(b) Vice-President
(c) Secretary and
(d) Treasurer.

The Executive Committee shall have the right to invite for a particular meeting such a person or persons whose knowledge and experience would be of help in its deliberations.

Article V

Functions of the Executive Committee

The Committee will regulate admission to the club, draw up overall programmes and be responsible for the conduct of the activities of the club.

The Executive Committee shall meet at least once a month.

It will promote:

1. Inter-club visits and competitions
2. Celebrations of National and State Days
3. Talks and demonstrations on improved agricultural practices, etc.

Article VI

Duties of the Office-bearers

President

1. Conduct meetings on parliamentary lines and serve as Chairman of the meetings.
2. Keep the speakers on the subject and within the time limit.
3. Maintain and improve the working of the club.

Vice-President

Preside over meetings in the absence of the President.

Secretary

1. Record proceedings of the meetings and maintain the records of the club.
2. Call the rolls at each meeting and read the minutes of the previous meeting.
3. Call and arrange meetings with the orders of the President.
4. Attend to official correspondence.
5. Send out notices.
6. Count and record votes when taken.
7. Prepare annual reports.
8. Read communications at meetings, if any.
9. Plan programmes.
10. Guide members in all their activities.
11. Send useful notes on club work for publicity.

12. Do all the things necessary for achieving the objectives of the club.

Treasurer

1. Receive club funds and act as their custodian.
2. Collect dues.
3. Maintain regular accounts.
4. Assist in preparing an annual budget of estimated receipts and expenditure.
5. Prepare financial statements and reports.

Article VII

Club Pledge

The following pledge will be taken by every member.

"I solemnly declare that I shall be an active member of this club, shall abide by its rules and serve my village and the community through the club to the best of my ability."

Article VIII

Funds

Funds will be raised through:

(a) Membership fees.
(b) Donations either from individuals or institutions.
(c) Government aid through departmental and Block budgets.
(d) Aid from local bodies.

Article IX

Control of Funds

The funds will be under the control of the Executive Committee and shall be deposited in a recognised Bank (including Post Office or Cooperative Bank).

Article X

Expenditure

No money shall be spent for any purpose outside the objects of the club.

Article XI

Withdrawal of Funds

No money shall be withdrawn except under the joint signatures of the President and the Treasurer.

Article XII

Audit of Accounts

The accounts shall be checked, once a quarter, by two members who shall be specifically elected by the central body for this purpose.

Article XIII

Objectives

The purpose of the rural youth club is to make the villagers progressive citizens and better cultivators. The guiding principle is to learn by doing and as far as possible to earn while learning. Its objectives are:

1. To create and foster community sense.
2. To promote literacy.
3. To build up character and health.
4. To inculcate discipline, self-help and mutual help.
5. To develop scientific attitudes and a spirit of adventure.
6. To develop qualities and skills of leadership.

Article XIV

Motto

Work is worship
or
Plan your work and work your plan
or
United we stand, divided we fall
or
Work, and not luck is the basis of hope.

Article XV

Meetings

(a) The members shall meet at least twice a week.
(b) The Executive Committee shall meet at least once a month.
(c) The General Body shall meet at least once a year.

Article XVI

Activities
(Illustrative)

There should be, preferably, separate programmes for the

different age groups to suit their respective emotional development and interests.

It is advisable to concentrate on a few primary items which have reference to local conditions and needs before enlarging the sphere of activities. The key-note should be to learn by doing and to earn while learning.

The activities of the club may include the following items:

(a) Cultural and educational programmes, including the correct way of singing the National Anthem, the significance of the National Flag, formation of radio listening groups, excursions, sports, literacy campaigns, the holding of literacy classes, etc.

(b) Agricultural activities which should include group and individual projects.

(c) Cooperative and group activities.

(d) Service to the community with special emphasis on service to its weaker sections.

Article XVII

Group Projects
(Illustrative)

1. Village afforestation.
2. Building village paths and roads.
3. Building of community places like *panchayat ghar*, community centre, school, etc.
4. Village sanitation campaigns.
5. Planting avenue trees and orchards.
6. Crop protection campaigns.
7. Conducting demonstrations.
8. Literacy drives, etc.

Individual Projects
(Illustrative)

1. Better farming practices—sowing of wheat, peas, maize, paddy, sugarcane, etc.
2. Vegetable growing—potato, tomato, brinjal, carrot, onion, cabbage, cauliflower, chilly, etc.
3. Planting of fruit trees and plants—mango, papaya, lemon, guava, banana, etc.
4. Bee-keeping.
5. Poultry-keeping.

6. Livestock-rearing—calves, sheep, pigs.
7. Sericulture.
8. Handling, repair and maintenance of agricultural tools and implements.
9. Carpentry.
10. Tailoring and shoe-making.
11. Cycle repairs and maintenance, etc.

Recreation Projects
(Illustrative)

1. Cultural programmes like dramas, *bhajans* and *kirtans*, celebration of national anniversaries, etc.
2. Wrestling and *kabaddi*.
3. Athletics, volleyball, football, tug of war, etc.
4. Indoor games like chess, carrom, etc.
5. Cross country and other races.
6. Parades and physical culture, including *asanas*.
7. Dramas, operas, shadow plays, etc.
8. Tours and trips to model farms, cooperatives, industrial centres, places of scientific and historical interest, attending meetings of *panchayats* or state legislature, interviewing important personalities, etc.
9. Team competitions and tournaments, first group-wise, then village-wise, and finally inter-village.
10. Organisation of training camps.
11. Organisation of a library.

Article XVIII

Affiliation

For purposes of coordination, guidance and assistance, there will be a rural youth club organisation at the Block level. Its General Body may consist of the Presidents of all youth clubs in the Block with an Executive Committee elected by this General Body. Otherwise, the youth clubs in a Village Level Worker's circle may elect a representative to serve on the Executive Committee at the Block level. Its functions will be :

1. To help organise village clubs.
2. To conduct leadership training camps.
3. To hold inter-village competitions.
4. To organise a conference of the youth clubs in the Block.

5. To help the implementation of the programmes of the youth clubs, etc.

The village clubs will be affiliated to the Block youth organisation.

Article XIX

Project Registers

Simple records may be maintained by the members individually, and by the clubs for all the members, to show all what the members have been able to produce from their individual and group projects. Following is a sample register for a farming project :

1. Name of the member.
2. Project undertaken.
3. Individual or group.
4. Area sown.
5. Yield.
6. Value of yield.
7. Cost of seed, fertiliser, etc.
8. Net gain.

Article XX

Evaluation

The Secretary shall prepare annual evaluation reports under the following heads :

1. Economic betterment of the members and their families by the adoption of improved methods and techniques, etc.
2. Development of interest and initiative in cooperative enterprises.
3. Contribution of the club to the promotion of community development programmes.

Developing Interest in Club Programme

There are various steps that help accelerate the interest of club members and maintain continuity in the programme. Some of these are :

1. *Study tours*. Study tours of members to places of interest like agricultural farms, Extension Training Centres, agriculture colleges, agricultural research stations, progressive farms, agricultural exhibitions, etc., are very useful. The Block

agency should be instrumental in preparing these programmes in such a way that the club members derive the maximum benefit.

2. *Competitions.* It is desirable that inter-village and inter-Block competitions in games and other activities are organised. These competitions inculcate a healthy spirit of rivalry among the club members.

3 *Annual youth rallies and fairs.* It will be in the interest of the club programme to hold a youth rally or youth fair at a suitable place in each Block area once a year. In these fairs, the projects taken up by the club members on an individual and community basis should be displayed. Exchange of ideas and group discussions on important problems at such occasions increase the incentive to intensify particular projects.

Building up Junior Leaders

It is very necessary that a club programme should provide necessary opportunities for building up junior leaders who may take positions when senior leaders leave the club. To build up junior leadership, it is desirable to attach one junior leader to each office-bearer for apprenticeship training. The junior leader will get the necessary practical training under the guidance of a senior leader, so that he may be ready to be a senior leader when the opportunity arises. The extension agency has a very definite responsibility in locating good senior leaders with whom the junior leaders can be attached for such training.

Problems of Rural Youth in the Villages

Organisers of rural youth clubs will find two categories of youngsters who could be persuaded to join the club. These are school-going and non-school-going youth.

Young boys and girls, whether they are school-going or non-school-going, are very receptive to programmes which suit their age group. School-going children can easily be organised into clubs, if proper coordination and assistance of the school teacher is obtained in organising club programmes. Real difficulty will be experienced in organising non-school-going youth as they are under the direct influence of their parents, and do not have the background of working together on common programmes.

Children of backward communities are much more receptive to the club programme if they and their parents are properly approached.

In villages, the young men after they are 25 years old, either take up the traditional profession of their forefathers, or some other similar jobs, while the girls mostly get married by the time they are 16. Those who remain unmarried do not like to continue as members of the club. These two factors have to be kept in view when the scope of organising youth activities in villages is considered.

Youth activities in villages should offer a proper type of training programme to those boys who attain the age of 25 and enter into agriculture or other professions. Thus, the extension workers who handle the youth must have the desirable type of experience and knowledge. Young farmers' clubs can be organised for boys who attain the age of 25. Separate women's clubs can be formed to impart a special type of training to housewives belonging to the age group 16 to 30.

The success of the youth club programme will depend largely on the ability of the organisers, their knowledge of the rural community, its traditions, customs and economic background. A successful implementation of the rural youth programme will only be possible if all the factors mentioned above are carefully studied, examined and analysed much before a programme is initiated in a village.

National Organisation of Rural Youth Clubs

If the programme is built up into a well-knit national organisation, a feeling of fraternity, leadership, friendship and fellowship will be generated in the members of the club. Clubs organised at the village level should be linked with a club association at the Block level, district level, state level and national level. Such linking will help generate the spirit of belonging to one organisation which has its roots in the villages and its branches extending all over the country.

Competitions, rallies and conventions at every level should be held at suitable occasions every year to provide opportunity for the exchange of experience and knowledge among members.

Role of Parents, Leaders and the School Teachers

Rural youth clubs will make significant headway only if the parents of members give their consent and cooperation in promoting the club programme. The objectives of organising rural youth activity and its content must be made clear to them and their interest developed so that they may help their children

in their club activities. Parents should often be invited for discussion and associated with developing the future club programme. The association of the parents in the various activities of the youth club at every stage is very essential for the future growth of the club.

In the United States, those clubs which have active local leadership to guide them make the greatest progress. The non-availability of desirable type of voluntary leadership has sometimes been experienced as one of the greatest handicaps to the promotion of club activities. Therefore, it is essential that local leaders are associated with the club projects.

Teachers always have great influence on their pupils. They can make a positive contribution to the youth programme if they are actively associated and consulted in its organisational activities. It is desirable that school teachers take initiative in organising rural youth activity where the school-going children are to be enrolled in large numbers. Parents, local leaders and teachers, therefore, need to be given suitable training in organising rural youth clubs and in the various projects undertaken by club members.

Role of Local Institutions

Rural youth activity in a democratic set-up cannot be developed in isolation. If the clubs are to be real living segments of the rural society, then their activities have to be associated with those of the local institutions like the *panchayat*, cooperative society and the school. To achieve this, it is essential that interested representatives of the village *panchayat*, cooperative and school are associated with the activities of the clubs as far as possible.

At the Block level, selected representatives of rural youth clubs should be associated with the Block development committee. It is suggested that a sub-committee of rural youth clubs be constituted at the Block level which should decide the programmes and policies and ways in which rural youth club work should proceed in the Block area. Representatives of Block Development Committees interested in youth programmes should be associated with the District Development Committee or *Zila Parishad*, to guide and execute the programme of rural youth clubs in the district. These committees which represent interests of the public will be instrumental in giving strength to the programme of rural youth organisation at every level.

Role of Extension Staff

The extension staff should guide rural youth activity in such a way that the youth club organisation develops as an independent village organisation and takes up civic and economic responsibilities. The extension agency should take every care in seeking cooperation from all the official and non-official agencies in the matter of organising the club. Extension workers should never think that they alone can build up the clubs without the help of other agencies. The whole programme of rural youth has to be developed in a spirit of cooperation. Such steps have to be initiated by the extension staff that cause every organisation involved in developing youth clubs to generate a cooperative spirit. The extension staff should help all agencies in the programme with technical guidance and organisational methodology as far as possible.

Role of Non-official Agencies

Rural youth programmes in India will not have a strong base and will not grow in strength until all official and non-official agencies work in close cooperation to develop the programme. If official and non-official agencies continue to work in separate spheres with different sets of objectives, there is always the danger of creating confusion in the minds of youth. Under these conditions, the objective of building up the younger generation and inculcating in it the habit of undertaking productive endeavours will not be met. Therefore, the Young Farmers' Association, the Bharat Sevak Samaj and any other non-official organisation involved in this programme should work out a programme of cooperative thinking and acting related to the club activity. This can be done by associating the representatives of such organisations at the Block level. At the village level, where the organisation of Young Farmers' Association exists, their representatives should be associated with the rural youth club programmes.

Steps for Intensifying Rural Youth Activity in Villages

There are various factors which require very careful consideration at the hands of those who are concerned with the organisation of rural youth programmes. As mentioned above, young people form a very delicate section of society and dealing with them requires the special art of evolving some openings, incentives and promises for them.

Recognition

This is one of the most important factors in making the club activity a success. Appropriate steps may be taken to recognise the good work done by any club member. Proper programmes at the village and Block level should be developed to highlight any outstanding work done by the clubs on an individual or community basis. Adequate opportunities should be provided at the village, Block, district, state and national levels for recognising meritorious work done by the youth.

In addition to undertaking conducted tours to places of importance like agriculture colleges, agricultural research stations, agricultural exhibitions and fairs, and to places where useful projects are in operation to provide good incentives for club members, scholarships to outstanding and deserving students, provision of books for the club libraries, help in sharing the agricultural implements on an individual and club basis, and assistance in providing plant protection material, fertilisers and insecticides, community listening sets, etc., can be considered as suitable recognition of merit shown by individual members or groups. Certificates and badges of merit also provide a suitable incentive for club members. Adequate arrangements for the sale of finished goods prepared by club members and provision of subsidy on such items by the government should also be considered. Annual gatherings and conventions of rural youth clubs will also provide a good incentive to club members.

People and organisations, who can donate money may be associated with the programme to help collect substantial funds for the welfare of youth clubs.

Scope in Selecting Projects

One of the limiting factors in the development of youth programmes is the disinterestedness shown by many village youth in the programmes because of their not offering them any projects which they could take up with economic or social gain. Club activity is mostly confined to kitchen gardening and some other similar projects. It is desirable that a variety of projects like the Japanese method of paddy cultivation, green manuring, control of pests and diseases, bee-keeping, sericulture, poultry-keeping, carpentry, village crafts, hosiery, soap making, fruit preservation etc., should be offered to club members so that they are able to participate in the programme to a larger extent.

A training programme will have to be developed to make the club members skilled in these projects.

It is also very important for the success of the rural youth club programme that the club projects be started and developed according to the needs of the area. This calls for special attention and efforts on the part of the extension staff.

Follow-up of the Club Programme

It has been observed that many clubs are started with great enthusiasm and determination, but fail in a short time. The extension staff, school teachers, local leaders or organisations concerned with such clubs do not follow up the activities, and therefore, the members lose interest and the clubs cease to function. To avoid this, adequate follow-up has to be ensured right from the time the club is instituted.

Selected References

Guide Posts for Local 4-H Leaders. T. A. Erickson.
Guide to Rural Youth Organisation. Planning, Research and Action Institute, Lucknow, 1960.
Improving 4-H Clubs. Federal Extension Service Bulletin No. 111, U.S.D.A., Washington, 1957.
Organisation and Activities of 4-H Clubs in United States. F.A.O., Rome.
Organisation of 4-H Club Work. U.S.D.A., Handbook No. 33, Washington, 1952.
Proceedings of the Development Commissioners' Conference held at Mysore in July, 1959. Ministry of Community Development and Cooperation, Government of India, New Delhi, 1959.
Proceedings of the Near East and South Asia Extension Seminar. T.C.M., India, New Delhi, 1960.
Proceedings of the 31st National Convention of Future Farmers of America. 1958.

CHAPTER XXIII

EVALUATION OF TRAINING PROGRAMMES

J. B. Chitambar

THE WORD EVALUATION has its origin in the Latin word *valere*—to be strong, valiant. Its dictionary meaning is : the determination of the value, the strength or worth of something ; an appraisal ; an estimate of the force of or the making of a judgement of something. More specific to the topic of this Chapter are the definitions given by persons involved in rural development and the assessment of its results. While some of their definitions refer specifically to the assessment of the results of programmes of rural extension, they can also be applied to the training aspect of such programmes. Some of these definitions are :

> ..a process which enables the administrator to describe the effects of his programme and thereby make progressive adjustments in order to reach his goal more effectively..[1]
>
> ..an effort to learn what changes take place during and after an action programme and what part of these changes can be attributed to the programme..[2]
>
> ..the process of systematically drawing upon experience as a means of making future efforts more effective..[3]
>
> ..measuring performance against a predetermined goal..[4]
>
> ..comparison of the situation before and after a development programme has operated within it for a predetermined period..[5]

1. *Jahoda and Barnit.* The Nature of Evaluation. UNESCO International Social Science Bulletin, Vol. VII, No. 3, 1955.
2. *Klineberg.* The Problem of Evaluation. UNESCO International Social Science Bulletin, Vol. VII, No. 3, 1955.
3. *Beaglehole.* Evaluation Techniques for Induced Technological Change. UNESCO Social Science Bulletin, Vol. VII, No. 3, 1955.
4. *L. Moss.* The Evaluation of Fundamental Education. UNESCO International Social Science Bulletin, Vol. VII, No. 3, 1955.
5. *J. K. Mathews.* What is Evaluation. Extension Service Review, U.S.D.A. Washington, D.C., September, 1955.

In Extension Education, the term evaluation grew out of a demand for school educators to work out ways of assessing their results. The term evaluation was suggested, rather than the term measurement, since it was felt that the latter implied an assessment more exact than was possible in education.

In everyday use, the term evaluation has different meanings for different people and programmes, since it is used in a wide variety of contexts. The process of evaluation is, however, truly a common happening. It is resorted to when choices are made in food or clothing; when personal likes and dislikes are expressed with regard to such experiences as reading a book or listening to a talk; or whenever a conscious effort is made to assess systematically the achievement of a set objective.

There are different degrees of accuracy in evaluation depending on what is to be evaluated. Expressing an opinion, for example, with regard to the satisfaction derived from a meal calls for less accuracy than the assessment of the efficiency of Village Level Worker trainees. The greater the importance ascribed to the judgements made and to what is to be judged, the greater would be the exactness and accuracy demanded from evaluation. Any individual concerned with improving personal performance subjects himself to self-evaluation, for, individual efficiency is closely related to how critically and thoroughly a person analyses his own performance. Although it is an effective form of evaluation, self-evaluation is limited largely to the individual worker with its scope restricted to the individual's range of experiences. Progress reports, for example, made by administrators and others who are in charge of Training Centres, or who are participating in action programmes, or who are responsible for their guidance indicate failure, success, and guidance for future planning. Too often, such reports are fragmentary, vague and lack objectivity, so that another person assigned to assess the results of the programme would probably not arrive at the same conclusions. The need, therefore, is often not for more evaluation, but for a greater application of scientific methods in evaluation with objectivity as the essential goal, so that when using the same techniques with equal competence, different experts come out with the same results. The term evaluation in this sense is a relatively new one as applied to the field of rural development and the training of personnel for these

programmes. It is important that among professionals and allied workers the use of this term, which has hitherto been so widely and loosely used, is restricted to a process which satisfies scientific criteria. This means that evaluation is distinguished from all forms of assessment that take the form of one man's judgement on the success or failure of an undertaking, be it the operation of a training programme for Community Development or that of a Block, even though his judgement is wise and sound.

Specifically, the evaluation of training programmes refers to the scientific process of assessment of the changes that have taken place in the attitudes, knowledge and skills among trainees, teachers and all other participants in the programme (since learning experience is shared), or in the effects that have resulted from the operation of the programme. These changes will be in terms of specified goals for all participants in the programme and for the total programme itself. For, in connection with training programmes, it is well to remember that evaluation is an essential segment of the educational cycle that starts with planning work to achieve certain teaching objectives, proceeds to action designed to achieve these objectives, and finally calls for evaluation. Then, of course, the cycle recommences with planning based on the results of the evaluation. Plan, act, evaluate—each is essential.

Some Assumptions

It is well to bear in mind certain basic assumptions with regard to the evaluation of training programmes. Some of these are :

1. That the methods used in such programmes to bring about changes are educational, not compulsive or authoritative.
2. That learning in such programmes is expressed in changes of behaviour, skills, knowledge and attitudes.
3. That the success of such programmes must be measured by the extent to which educational changes (in behaviour, knowledge, skills and attitudes) are attained.
4. That both qualitative judgements and quantitative judgements are valid and useful. Quantitative measurements are readily added up mathematically so as to consolidate a large number of observations. Qualitative judgements are always important and must be taken into consideration, for they supply valuable information that

relates to factors which cannot be treated quantitatively.

5. That evaluation is not the main purpose of a training programme or a village programme of Extension Education. Therefore, the programme should not be overburdened and deflected from its main task by excessive record-keeping for purposes of evaluation, although adequate provision must be made for an optimum amount of evaluation.
6. To instructors in training programmes, evaluation means facing such questions as: Were the teaching objectives achieved? If not, to what extent? Were the most effective means of achieving teaching objectives employed in the programme? In what ways can the training programme be improved so as to accomplish more with the same effort?

Major Objectives and Purpose of Evaluation

The major objectives of evaluation may be stated as follows:

1. To help in the understanding and study of factors which make for success or failure; those that enhance and those which retard progress towards the goals set up in the programme.
2. To induce workers to examine their objectives critically.
3. To help workers make clear the purposes of programmes. Evaluation compels clarification of purpose for activity.
4. To make workers examine the entire programme in terms of their objectives.
5. To make workers examine strong and weak points of their programme and guard against considering all details as of equal importance.
6. To help workers limit objectives to those they can actually accomplish.
7. To increase confidence in the programme, both in the workers and in the rural people.
8. To help workers determine how far their plans have progressed and to what extent their objectives have been achieved, so that they may gain psychological satisfaction, confidence and security.
9. To compare the value of achievements of the programme with costs.
10. To bring to light for knowledge and action kinds of educational changes that are not easily observable and

which, therefore, require more precise methods of measurements.

11. To facilitate the presentation of results for public support or withdrawal. Evaluation thus serves a useful purpose in public relations.
12. To provide a means for testing methods, approaches and techniques used in programmes.

The major objectives of evaluation, then, generally involve a recurring analysis of the operation of a programme to be evaluated, focusing on two chief questions which seek to elicit a broad analytical base for decisions on future policy or on whether the programme should be expanded. The questions are:

1. Why has, or has not, there been progress towards the objectives laid down? Why has the programme achieved greater or less success than expected within the period?
2. What do these changes or achievements mean to the people concerned in terms of cost and return?

Criteria for Effective Evaluation

There are certain criteria in the absence of which the evaluation of a programme of training or development cannot be effectively carried out. These are:

1. *Clearly defined objectives.* Objectives are the ends against which movement or achievement can be assessed. Unless this end-point is clearly defined, one cannot hope for accurate evaluation, nor for satisfactory evidence showing the extent to which the programme is accomplishing its aims. Vague, overall objectives must, therefore, be broken down into specific and clearly defined ones.

2. *Valid instruments of measurements.* The devices or instruments used for measuring the extent to which a programme is accomplishing its aims must be valid. They must, in other words, be capable of measuring what is to be measured; they must actually give evidence of and register movement towards the objectives. This presupposes the fixing of criteria to be used in evaluation. These criteria are actually indicators of change which indicate movement towards objectives. The instrument or device used for the purpose of evaluation must accurately measure achievements in terms of the criteria or indicators of change. Thus, if the objective is the adoption of sowing improved wheat seed to the point of 'saturation' in a village, the criterion of measurement, or indicator of progress

towards this objective is the adoption of this practice by farmers, and the instrument of measurement can be the number of farmers who sow improved wheat, as against the total number of farmers who grow wheat in the village. The measurement can also be the acreage under improved wheat expressed as a percentage of the total area under wheat. Similarly, an examination question paper on the topic of green manuring can be an effective instrument in measuring the extent of knowledge transferred to a student with regard to that subject. But if, among the several questions asked, two, for example, are on the subject of social psychology, the examination question paper as an instrument of evaluation loses its validity.

3. *Objectivity.* This refers to freedom from bias, personal prejudice, idiosyncrasies and purely individual judgement. A good evaluation must have a considerable degree of objectivity. This is one of the cardinal aims in evaluation if it is to be scientific and accurate. External agencies, which are not involved in the programme or even a part of it, are therefore, often called in to evaluate a programme because of their objectivity.

4. *Reliability.* As mentioned earlier, there is need, not for more evaluation, but for greater use of the scientific method in evaluation, so that different experts using the same techniques with equal competence will arrive at the same results. This is what is meant by reliability, and without it effective evaluation is not achieved.

5. *Accurate evidence of change.* To be effective, an evaluation should bring to light any change that indicates achievement or non-achievement of the programme. If, as a result of the programme, change has been achieved, the evaluation should make it evident. This may require two points of appraisal—an earlier and a later point—so as to indicate where the shift has been made. Thus, in evaluating the effectiveness of teaching as shown in the transfer of knowledge of green manuring to a trainee, it is necessary to first ascertain the extent of the trainee's previous knowledge with regard to this subject. Otherwise, the evaluation will not be accurate.

6. *Practicability.* This criterion considers the resources available for evaluation and what can be done within the limitations of these resources. Time and money available are perhaps the most important factors in this connection. Urgency may require evaluation within a very short time. The evaluator may, therefore, be forced to take short cuts in the process, and

consequently come out with an evaluation that while serving its purpose is not as precise and accurate as would otherwise have been possible. The same applies when financial resources are limited. Evaluators, therefore, sometimes have to compromise between very accurate and precise appraisals and appraisals that are not as accurate and precise, but which meet the specific need and can be executed within the limitations of the available resources.

Steps in Evaluation

The following are the major steps in an effective programme of evaluation.

1. *Formulate overall objectives.* The main goals and objectives should be set up at regular intervals, depending on the type of evaluation to be made and the programme. In village development programmes, annual and seasonal (agricultural seasons) objectives are commonly set up. In a training programme, objectives for each teaching activity or session are established. These may be short-term objectives. There are, however, also long-term objectives which project over a period of several years. Often, too many objectives are set. These become too numerous for practical purposes. Under such circumstances, the objectives need to be re-examined and reformulated into a few clear statements of what the programme seeks to achieve.

2. *Clarify objectives and make them specific.* The main overall objectives, formulated in step 1, are further clarified and defined at this stage. Major objectives are sub-divided into immediate, specific, clearly defined goals. This is a vital step, for only when objectives are clearly defined can it be decided later what is valid evidence of accomplishment. Clear objectives are the fixed points from which measurements are made and are the basis for making decisions, since they define how people should behave if the programme or teaching succeeds. The importance of this basic step cannot be over-emphasised, for, on it primarily depends the success or failure of subsequent evaluation.

An example of clarification or breaking down of overall objectives into the intermediate and immediate objectives is presented diagrammatically below. In this case, the overall objective of raising the level of living may be analysed into the intermediate objectives of increasing food production, increasing

crop yield, increasing wheat yield, increasing the productivity of soil through greater application of manures, until finally the immediate objective of persuading the villagers to adopt the practice of green manuring is arrived at. At each of these levels, objectives have to be very clearly defined, particularly at the level of the immediate objectives. Again, it is important that the relationship of each of these objectives with the overall objectives be clearly understood, both by extension workers and through them by village people.

Raise the level of living —Overall objective

Increase food supply.
Increase crop yield.
Increase wheat yield. —Intermediate objectives
Increase productivity
by using manure.

Persuade villagers to
adopt green manuring. —Immediate objective

3. *Identify indicators or the type of evidence that will indicate movement towards the objective or achievement of it.* For example, the object of a programme of training may be to transfer knowledge with regard to anti-malaria precautions under village conditions. The indicator or evidence of movement towards the objective will be the increase in knowledge on the part of the trainee with regard to this subject. At this point, there is often a problem in identifying the changes that have taken place that give evidence of advance towards the accomplishment of the objectives. A few examples may help to explain the principle. If the objective is to have healthy children in the village, an indicator will be an increase in the weight of under-weight children. Similarly, if the objective of a literacy programme is reading and writing ability up to the fourth class level for all village people above ten years of age, then an appropriate criterion or indicator would be the number of village people of this age group who have reached this level of ability compared percentage-wise with the number of people of this age group who already had reached this level of ability before the start of the programme. Step 3 is then an identification of what is to be measured; an identification of indicators that refer to the objectives in order to establish evidence of change.

4. *Develop techniques and methods of measuring accomplishments.* This means the evolving of instruments or devices for measuring the indicators which give evidence of achievement towards the objectives. The evaluator selects or devises these instruments to measure accomplishment by making a comparison with a standard. The purpose of the measurement is to eliminate, as far as possible, subjective differences in judgement. In this step, a standard is set up against which to measure accomplishments. At the outset it may be crude, but continuous refining efforts will gradually make it more precise, so that it can fulfil the basic requirement of a good measuring instrument, for example, to register accurately the position against the criterion to which it relates. The following illustration will help in clarifying the point.

Objective	*Indicator*	*Possible instrument or device for measurement*
Transfer of knowledge with regard to precautionary measures against malaria	Increase in knowledge on the part of the trainee with regard to precautions against malaria	Examination question paper
Healthy village children	Increase in weight of under-weight children	Weighing scale, and before and after records
Reading and writing ability up to the class level	Increase in the number of village people who have reached this level	Examination of the fourth class level given before and after the training programme

5. *Consider and decide on the design of the evaluation.* In a programme to promote change, be it village development or training for this activity, specific changes as well as general changes in the behaviour, skills and attitudes of village people (in the case of a development programme) and trainees (in the case of a training programme) are sought. The question to be faced is how to decide the extent to which any changes that have been achieved can be attributed to the programme, since there are many other factors that influence and bring about change.

In designing an evaluation, some way of separating the effect of the programme from that of other influences is necessary. This may be done by setting up a control group for purposes of comparison. In this case, the evaluation design will have an experimental group and a control group, carefully matched to be alike in every major respect. The development programme will operate in one and not in the other. This technique also involves the use of an adequate sampling procedure so that the sample drawn is truly representative of its universe.

6. *Decide on what data are necessary to obtain evidence of achievement of objectives.* A careful determination of the specific type of data that gives evidence of movement towards the objective is sought in this step. Thus, data with regard to infant mortality, and increase in the weight of children from birth over a period of time may be more relevant than other types of data in evaluating a programme to promote improved child care practices. This step will further involve the choice of a suitable method for the collection of information. The method or methods chosen will depend on local conditions and, thus, it may be decided that the use of a questionnaire or schedule is less suitable than the use of an informal method of questioning in order to secure the information desired.

7. *Select samples and collect data.* This step again involves the use of an adequate sampling procedure, so that the sample drawn is truly representative of its universe. In a training programme, it may not be necessary to draw a sample, since the number of case studies may be small enough to be handled without resorting to sampling. However, sampling is frequently used if the average performance in terms of efficiency of the trainees or teachers at a Training Centre is to be assessed.

8. *Organise and analyse data and interpret results.* The data collected are put into a form suitable for analysis. This involves coding and tabulation. These reduce the data to a form in which they may be compared. It is only after this has been done that the analysis proper can begin. Analysis aims at answering two questions: (1) What changes have taken place during the programme? (2) What portion of the changes can be attributed to the programme?

Interpretation of the analysis of quantitative data is greatly facilitated by qualitative data about behaviour, special incidents, reactions and operations which are often important clues to the process by which the programme achieved its effects.

Aspects of Evaluation

In the evaluation of training programmes, the following are the five major aspects to be faced.

1. Evaluation of the total effects of the training programme.
2. Evaluation of the methods, techniques, and media used in the programme in order to achieve its objectives.
3. Evaluation of the Instructors.
4. Evaluation of the trainees.
5. Evaluation of what has been taught.

1. *Evaluation of the total effects of the programme.* To make an assessment of the total effects of a training programme is no more possible than is the assessment of the total effects of an educational institution. These effects are so varied and disperse and diffuse in so many different directions through so many unforeseeable channels, that a total assessment becomes a veritable impossibility.

2. *Evaluation of the methods, techniques and media.* This refers to an assessment of the specific methods and media used to aid in the achievement of the teaching objectives. The objectives of effective teaching are to transfer skills, knowledge and attitudes, so that they are understood, learned, remembered and used. There are two aspects in teaching: (a) the content of what is taught, or the subject-matter, and (b) the method of presentation or teaching. The aspect of evaluation being considered here focuses on the latter and faces the question: To what extent did the methods used assist in transferring the subject-matter, so that it was understood, learned, remembered and used? Extension Education involves the use of many methods, the comparative effectiveness of which continues as a largely unexplored field of inquiry in India. Some methods are more applicable to a particular situation and treatment than to others; some lend themselves to a wide variety of situations, while others do not; some are best used in combination with others. Whatever the method of treatment, its ultimate test lies in the extent to which it effectively aids in teaching. The best method or combination of methods is the one that results in the most effective teaching. An evaluation of methods and techniques would be actually a kind of controlled research, since these factors can be controlled more than can individual personalities be. Such controlled evaluation leans more heavily on quantitative than on qualitative judgements. While the results of such research would be of vital importance to training programmes,

experiments set up to evaluate these aspects would not normally come under the training programme itself. Thus, while tried out techniques which proved superior to others may be used and taught in a training programme, normally no attempt would be made to study which teaching methods were more effective than others.

3. *Evaluation of Instructors.* In this aspect of evaluation, an attempt is made to assess the effectiveness of the Instructor. The question to be answered is: Has the teacher taught effectively? Once again, a clear definition of the objectives of teaching indicates the transference of skills, attitudes, and knowledge. If this has happened, the teacher has taught effectively and consequently, rates high in the achievement of his teaching objectives. An Instructor should not, however, be evaluated solely in terms of these objectives, but also on the basis of certain others, such as his general influence on students, colleagues and the organisation as a whole. It is at this point that evaluation moves from quantitative judgement towards those more qualitative in nature. Quantitative judgement is confined largely to the achievement of students in terms of the numerical grades they have acquired in the tests and examinations which seem to assess how effectively the teacher has taught his subject. Qualitative judgement is based on the observation of various people according to a prescribed rating schedule. Both quantitative and qualitative judgements are in terms of specific criteria or indicators of progress towards the objective. The evaluation of Instructors at a Training Centre is probably best accomplished ultimately by the Principal. In order to arrive at a good assessment of the Instructors and the staff, using both quantitative and qualitative judgement, the following techniques may be used.

(a) Rating on the basis of personal observation by the Principal, of the Instructor's performance in meetings, seminars, classes and while not on duty.

(b) Rating on the basis of observation by judiciously chosen experts who visit the Centre, and by senior colleagues. Teaching techniques are perhaps the chief assessment possible in this connection.

(c) Rating on the basis of the performance of students in tests and examinations. This assesses the Instructor's ability as an effective teacher; his ability to communicate and transfer knowledge, skills and attitudes.

(d) Rating on the basis of appraisal by students.

The Principal makes a final summary evaluation in the light of the above information. Notice that in each case the assessment involves the use of criteria against which the evaluations are made. The following is a suggested rating scale to illustrate a specific application of the above principles of quantitative and qualitative assessment of an Instructor.

Criteria	*Rating Scale*	
	Very good, good, fair, average, poor	*Unable to observe*
A. Knowledge, interest in the technical soundness of the subject-matter taught.		
B. Method of presentation.		
C. Application and relevance of subject-matter taught to practical problems in the field.		
D. Understanding of and linking up with the total content of which the subject-matter is a part and of the ultimate purpose of the training programme.		
E. Relationship with students, colleagues and others.		
F. Sense of responsibility and dependability.		
G. General manner, bearing and appearance.		

A rating scale giving different degrees of proficiency may be constructed against each criterion as indicated above. It is useful and convenient to have three or five degrees (but not more than five) on the scale, so as to provide for a mid-point for average performance. If the above proforma is to be used as a rating form, it would be useful to make provision for an overall evaluation of the individual by adding the following :

On the whole, do you consider the Instructor to be—very good, good, fair, poor, or unable to observe?

What do you think is the capacity of the Instructor to develop in his job?—Very good, good, fair, poor, or unable to observe?

4. *Evaluation of trainees.* Such an evaluation is greatly fortified by the adoption in the training programme of an adviser-trainee system. According to this system, each Instructor has a group of about ten trainees allotted to him. The Instructor acts as an adviser to these trainees throughout the period of training, assuming the role of a friend and a guide. Under this system, the evaluation of the trainee could best be done by: (a) his adviser, (b) the Instructor in each subject, and (c) the Principal who makes a final evaluation after receiving confidential ratings from the adviser (and any others at his discretion) and from other Instructors in terms of numerical grades.

The above discussion once again emphasises an important constant implication, namely, that evaluation rests both on quantitative (numerical achievement in tests) and qualitative (subjective judgement of observers) assessment.

In a training programme for Extension Education, the evaluation of trainees would normally involve assessment of their performance in three major situations: (a) in the class-room, (b) in the practicals conducted at the Traning Centre, and (c) in the village.

Summarised briefly below are techniques, devices or methods suggested for the evaluation of performance in each of these major situations:

(a) *In the class-room.*

(i) Knowledge tests (on transfer of subject-matter)	Periodic tests, frequently objective type on the subject-matter taught. Grading of notes made by each trainee on the subject-matter taught. Scrutiny and grading of summaries made by each trainee at the end of each class as an exercise.

(ii) Understanding tests (on application of the principles and the subject-matter to problem-solving in the field)	Ratings on analyses of case studies and problems experienced in the field. Ratings on seminars and discussions on problems and specific tropics.

(b) *In practicals at the Training Centre.*

Skill or performance test (on the degree of proficiency achieved in the skills taught)	Rating in terms of a rating scale evolved on the basis of the skills taught.

(c) *In Village Work.*

(i) Adoption of improved practices as a result of the efforts of the trainee	Rating on the number of targets fulfilled or practices adopted.
(ii) Attitude scale (attitude towards village people and work)	Rating by observers on the acceptance by village people of the trainee and the programme and the trainee's attitude towards the village and work.
(iii) Knowledge, understanding and skill tests	Rating by observers on the technical soundness and application of subject-matter, and on the skill and teaching methods used in the promotion of improved practices.

While rating scales should always be tailored to existing conditions and the given training programme, the criteria appearing below must certainly be included in any instrument for effective evaluation.

Suggested Form for the Evaluation of Trainees

Criteria	*Rating Scale*	
	Very good, good, fair, average, poor	*Unable to observe*
1. Knowledge and understanding of the programme, his role, and the job to be done.		

2. Skill in the use of techniques and methods.
3. Technical knowledge with reference to subject-matter.
4. Relationship/attitude towards others (colleagues and people).
5. Capacity to develop.
6. Interest and belief in his work (interest over and above the call of duty as reflected in dependability, and appearance, initiative, punctuality, regularity).
7. General appearance, manner, bearing and cleanliness.
   (a) Personal neatness, dress, bearing, cleanliness.
   (b) Impression on others.

On the whole how would you rate his performance?	*Very good, good, fair, average, poor*	*Unable to observe*

How can he be helped to be more effective? Suggestions:

Requires special attention for stimulating his interest.........

Needs psychological build-up to increase self-confidence......

Needs additional instruction on..............................

Needs additional experience in...............................

He should study these subjects...............................

He should change his attitude as follows.....................

Other suggestions..

5. *Evaluation of the content of the syllabus or what is taught.* The objective of syllabus evaluation is to be sure that the content of what is taught is job-oriented. A recurring use of the following questions will elicit the basic essentials:

(a) What is the job to be done by the trainee?

(b) What skills, attitudes, and knowledge must necessarily

be transferred to the trainees to enable them to do this job effectively?

(c) How can these be organised into a composite, comprehensive syllabus?

(d) To what extent does this syllabus, or the content of what is taught, actually equip the trainee for the job for which he is being trained?

This is the vital question that sets off the evaluation of the syllabus and leads to a re-examination of the foregoing questions, so that the process is cyclic and continuous as diagrammatically expressed below.

How can these be best organised into a syllabus?

What is the job to be assigned to the trainee after training?

What skills, attitudes, etc., must be transferred to do the job effectively?

How far does the syllabus actually equip the trainee for his assignment?

The ultimate test of the efficacy of the content of training is the extent to which it assists the trainee in the assignment for which the training was given. It is, therefore, largely his subjective judgement upon which evaluation rests, supported by the judgement of others associated with the trainee's work after the training, and the success that he achieves in the performance of his assignment. The form that appears below is suggested as an instrument in the evaluation of the syllabus. It is to be completed by a trainee on three occasions, (a) at the end of his training, (b) some months after he has operated in the job for which he was trained and (c) periodically thereafter.

Evaluation of the Training Programme (for Personnel in Training and Posted in the Field)

(Do not sign your name on this form)

1. What is your overall opinion with regard to the usefulness of the training programme for your job?	Very useful Useful Fairly useful Not useful

2. List the three topics which you consider most useful to your job.
   a.
   b.
   c.
3. List the three topics which you consider least useful to your job.
   a.
   b.
   c.
4. What topics should, in your opinion, be added in order to make the training more useful to your job?
5. What topics should, in your opinion, be dropped out in order to make the training more useful to your job?
6. What other improvements would you suggest (in addition to those mentioned above) in order to make your entire training experience more useful in preparing you for your job? Suggestions:

Improvements in living facilities —food, lodging

Improvements in learning facilities —class-rooms, equipment, library

Improvements in teaching facilities —presentation of subject-matter, relation to practical problems, actualities

Improvements in daily routine programme—allocation of time

Any other improvements:

Name of the Training Centre	Date/Period of Training

Some Basic Premises with Regard to the Evaluation of Training and Developmental Programmes

1. Movement towards the goals or results of a programme of training and development are qualitative as well as quantitative.
2. Quantitative results are quite easy to measure, while qualitative results are usually rather difficult to measure.
3. The difficulty in measuring qualitative results is largely due to a failure to:

(a) recognise indicators or criteria of movement as expressed in overt behaviour, and

(b) evolve or construct valid instruments to measure movement in terms of criteria.

Every change (and all programmes of training and development aim at bringing about change), whether it be in behaviour, attitudes, skills, or knowledge, is expressed in some form or other, if it has been effected. Change that is most evident in overt behaviour lends itself most readily to quantitative measurement. Other changes lie so hidden in a mass of overt and covert behaviour that their isolation or clear definition becomes extremely difficult. Such changes may be referred to as qualitative changes, but many of these so-called qualitative changes can be measured quantitatively. To accomplish this, the mass of change in overt and covert behaviour is analysed. From this analysis, specific criteria for change are set up to be measured by valid instruments or scales.

4. Action programmes of development and training that have been and are being operated in India and in other under-developed countries are for all practical purposes almost entirely assessed on the basis of quantitative results specifically on the achievement of physical targets within a given time-space. The qualitative aspect is greatly neglected, as are generally any results other than the achievement of physical targets. This situation inevitably results in an inaccurate assessment of the actual achievements of the programme.
5. While there is always a point beyond which it is not feasible to measure or quantify, it is possible to measure quantitatively much more than is being measured.
6. The problem of increasing effectiveness and accuracy in the evaluation of changes resulting from rural development programmes is primarily one of quantifying to the fullest extent possible the so-called qualitative results, so as to minimise what is at present either not taken into consideration (achievements other than physical targets) or considered (by these programmes) immeasurable.

This can be done in accordance with the procedure set up earlier in this Chapter :

1. By clearly defining the objectives and breaking down the overall objectives into simpler and immediate objectives.
2. By listing criteria or indicators of achievement or movement towards these objectives.
3. By evolving fixed scales by which to measure movement or achievement in terms of the indicators or criteria.

Consider, for example, a situation in which the overall objective of a village development programme is the development of a strong village community. Broken down or further analysed into intermediate objectives, this overall objective arrives at the intermediate one of meeting basic physiological needs. Further analysed, it eventually arrives at the immediate objective of increasing the yield of wheat per acre through the use of improved seed. This example, and other similar ones, however, are commonly assessed quantitatively. What measurements or assessments of movement can be made other than the achievement of physical targets so commonly and exclusively relied upon? In attempting to answer this question, the example given of the overall objective of a strong village community may once again be taken. The question to be faced is: What constitutes an increase in strength and self-reliance? The answer probably involves these and other factors:

1. The strengthening of the local village *panchayat* or council.
2. The strengthening of local channels for the supply of goods and services.
3. The strengthening of the local schools and the educational system.
4. The strengthening of community consciousness.
5. Increasing the interest in the outside world.
6. Increasing the interest in the welfare of people outside the village, other than for reasons of caste or kinship.
7. Increasing the projects for village development undertaken within the village that require corporate action and team-work.
8. Increasing the participation of the various groups comprising the community, in initiating, planning and operating of such projects.
9. Increasing the recreational and other social activities that make for greater enjoyment of life within the village

community, which are initiated, planned and operated upon by the village community.

10. Increasing receptivity to new ideas and changes, arousing greater interest, discussion and actual acceptance of new ideas.
11. Encouraging greater decision and choice-making on the lines of action or acceptance of new ideas, both by individuals and groups, and by the community as a whole. While acceptance may not always follow, the important thing is to have more thinking through and discussions on problems and needs. This would be indicated by the changes in the nature of the objections raised over the acceptance of proposed new ideas and practices.

The above list is not complete, and the points that have been stated overlap. All those stated, however, can be quantified. Consider, for example, the first point. How can the increasing strength of the village *panchayat* be quantified or expressed in quantitative terms? To answer this, it is necessary to list the items or activities that indicate an increase in strength and to state these quantitatively as follows:

1. Number of meetings held by the *panchayat*.
2. Attendance at each meeting (may be as a percentage of total membership).
3. Number of disputes settled by the *panchayat*.
4. Number of times the parties concerned failed to abide by the *panchayat* decisions.
5. Proportion of disputes settled by the *panchayat* and those taken directly for decision at the *tehsil* (a higher) level.
6. Number of village community activities initiated by the *panchayat* and carried out either through them or at their suggestion through another group.
7. Number of times the *panchayat* approval has been sought by individuals and groups for their ideas or actions, committed or proposed.

The collection of these data over a period of time during which the programme operates will give quantitative information relevant to evaluation. Here again, the list is by no means complete, but numerical figures can be ascribed to each of the above. Take another example, that of the strengthening of community consciousness. To quantify movement towards this all the points listed above under the strengthening of the *panchayat* would be included, plus other points that could be

grouped under the strengthening of local organisations. To these might be added :

1. The number of people who identify themselves with the village community when questioned.
2. The number of instances in which individuals and groups have acted specifically in the interest of the community as a whole. This would include corporate action that has resulted in the construction of schools, hospitals, or community centres or in contributions towards the purchase of a community listening set etc.
3. The number of instances when the community has got together as a whole for social, recreational or other community activity.
4. The attendance on such occasions and the composition (expressed as a proportion of the whole), of the attendance on such occasions.
5. The number of discussions by individuals or groups on topics that concern the village community as a whole.

Again, the list is incomplete. Further example of quantification of the items stated earlier as constituting an increase in strength and self-reliance of the village community could be cited, but this is unnecessary for the present purpose. From the foregoing, it will be seen that the scope for quantification of hitherto unquantified results of the programmes of rural development is great and is largely untapped.

The list of the indicators or criteria of movement as a result of an action programme is best made progressively in conference with field workers and other development personnel of the programme whose efforts are to be evaluated, if these lists are to be exhaustive. Actual observation in the field and discussion with village people by the evaluator may be necessary to make the lists still more complete. The organisation necessary to make this possible will vary with the conditions within which the programme operates and with the administrative set-up of the programme and its relation with the evaluation team. Whatever the organisation, the plea is that it be so modified as to remove all mechanical difficulties and obstacles and facilitate the completion of the lists referred to above. This will contribute considerably to the quantification of results and, consequently, to a far greater accuracy in the assessment of the changes brought about by action programmes of development. The greater the

extent to which this is achieved, the greater will be the effectiveness of the evaluation made. Too many programmes of development and training relating thereto have failed because they have based their activity on hit-and-miss methods. A greater application of the scientific method in evaluation paves the way for effective action.

To conclude this Chapter, the following are some further problems in the evaluation of development programmes. No attempt is made more than to list some of the important ones not mentioned in the foregoing parts of the Chapter. (1) The problem of imputing credit for changes in specific agencies. (2) The problem of imputing costs for changes in specific agencies. (3) The problem of conducting evaluation without impairing the acceptance of the development programme or field efficiency of the development personnel. (4) The problem of combining at the same time objectivity with an intimate knowledge of the area in the evaluator or evaluation team. (5) The problem of the carry-over of the effects of the programme into the control area, particularly when the size of this area is small.

Selected References

Approach to Evaluation in a Young Extension Programme. A. T. Mosher (unpublished paper).

Assessing the Results of Development. First Report of the Expert Committee on Health Education of the Public, World Health Organisation, 1954.

Evaluation. Gladys Gallup, Pacific NW Regional workshop at the University of Washington, 1947.

Evaluation in Extension. Fratchay and others, Division of Extension Research and Training, Federal Extension Service, Washington D.C., 1959.

Evaluation of Extension. Ralph Tylor, NW Regional Workshop, University of Washington, 1947.

Extension Evaluation—What it is, How it is done. Extension Bulletin, USDA, Washington D.C.

Suggestions on Evaluation of Pakistan V-Aid Programme. R. W. Jones, Ford Foundation.

REFERENCES

BOOKS

AGRICULTURAL UNIVERSITY OF WAGENINGEN. Methods of agricultural extension. (The Netherlands, The University. 1953).

ALLAHABAD AGRICULTURAL INSTITUTE. Experiment in extension—the gaon sathi. (Oxford University Press. 1956).

AUROBINDO. Human cycle. (Pondicherry, Aurobindo Ashram. 1959).

BACON (EARL I.). Extension for extension workers. (Trivandrum, Government Press. 1959).

BENDER (JAMES F.). How to talk well. (New York, McGraw-Hill. 1954).

BHATIA (K.) and BHATIA (B. D.). Principles and methods of teaching. (Delhi, Doaba House. 1956).

BIDDLE (WILLIAM W.). Cultivation of community leadership. (New York, Harper. 1953).

BLACK (J. W.) and MOORE (W. E.). Speech, code, meaning and communications. (New York, McGraw-Hill. 1955).

BLISS (R. K.) etc. Spirit and philosophy of extension work. (Washington, Graduate School. 1952).

BROWN and OTHERS. Audio-visual material and methods. (New York, McGraw-Hill. 1958).

BRYSON (L.). Communication of ideas (New York, Harper. 1957).

CHASE (STEWART). Power of words. (New York, Harcourt Brace. 1957).

CHATTERJEE (S.) and DUTTA (D. M.). Introduction to Indian philosophy. (University of Calcutta. 1954).

CUBER (JOHN F.). Sociology. (New York, Appleton Century Crofts. 1947).

DAHAMA (O. P.). Extension in rural welfare. (Lashkar, The Author. 1958).

DALE (EDGER). Audio-visual methods in teaching (Rev. edn.). (New York, Dryden Press. 1957).

DERNSMOON (C. C.) and MILLER (L. M.). Principles and methods of guidance for teachers. (Pennsylvania, International Text Book. 1955).

DEULKAR (DURGA). Guide to household textiles and laundry work. (Delhi, Atma Ram. 1951).

DEVADAS (RAJAMMAL P.). Meaning of home science. (Coimbatore, Sri Avinashilingam Home Science College. 1958).

DEVADAS (RAJAMMAL P.). Teaching home science. (New Delhi, All India Council for Secondary Education. 1958).

DEVADAS (RAJAMMAL P.). Text book of home science. (New Delhi, Indian Council of Agricultural Research. 1959).

DEY (S. K.). Problem of problems. (New Delhi, Ministry of Community Development and Cooperation. 1959).

DUBE (S. C.). India's changing villages. (London, Routledge and Kegan Paul. 1958).

DURAN (CLEMENT A.). Programme encyclopedia II. (New York, American Press. 1955).

EASTERN COMMERCIAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION. Determining the objectives of a curriculum unit in unit planning in business education, Fifteenth Year Book. (Connecticut, State Department of Education. 1942).

EBRIGHT (DONALD F.). Audio-visual handbook for India (Sponsored and produced by the Audio-visual Aids Committee, National Christian Council of India). (Madras, Diocean Press. 1955).

ENSMINGER (DOUGLAS). Guide to community development. (New Delhi, Ministry of Community Development and Cooperation. 1957).

FLEMING (C. M.). Teaching—a psychological analysis. (London, Methuen Press. 1958).

FLESCH (RUDOLPH). Art of plain talk. (New York, Harper. 1952).

GARRIS (E. W.). Teaching vocational agriculture. (New York, McGraw-Hill. 1954).

GORDON (THOMAS). Group centred leadership. (Boston, Houghton Mifflin. 1955).

HAIMAN (F. S.). Group leadership and democratic action. (Boston, Houghton Mifflin. 1950).

HAMMONDS (CARSIE). Teaching agriculture. (New York, McGraw-Hill. 1950).

HARRISON (GEORGE RUSSEL). What man may be—the human side of science. (New York, William Morrow. 1956).

HARTLEY and HARTLEY. Fundamentals of social psychology. (New York, Knopf. 1952).

HASS and PACKER. Preparation and use of audio-visual aids. (New York, Prentice Hall. 1955).

HEPPLE (L. M.). Group organisations and leadership in rural life. (Columbia, Lucas. 1954).

HIGHET (C.). Art of teaching. (Vintage Press. 1954).

HOVELAND (L.) and SHEFFIELD. Experiments in mass communication. (Princeton University Press. 1949).

HULL (G. L.). Behavior system. (Yale University Press. 1952).

INDIA. COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT and COOPERATION (MIN. OF). Guide to community development. (Delhi, Publications Division. 1957).

INDIA. EXTENSION (DTE. OF). Towards a welfare state (New Delhi, The Directorate. 1957).

INDIA. PLANNING COMMISSION. New India (New York, Macmillan. 1958).

INTERNATIONAL AGRICULTURAL STUDY CENTRE. Methods of agricultural extension. (Wageningen, The Centre. 1953).

INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION ADMINISTRATION. Home making around the world. (Washington, The Administration).

INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION ADMINISTRATION. Using visuals in agricultural extension programmes. (East Lansing, The Administration.).

JOAD (C. E. M.). Philosophy. (London, English University Press. 1945).

KELSEY (L. D.) and HERNE (C. C.). Cooperative extension work. (New York, Comstock. 1949).

KIETHAN (MILDRED MCKIE). Indian food and nutrition. (Madras, P.A.S. Press.).

KINDER (JAMES S.). Audio-visual materials and techniques. (New York, American Book. 1950).

KINGSLEY (H. E.). Nature and conditions of learning. (Boston, Prentice Hall. 1947).

KNOWLES (MALCOLM S.). Informal adult education. (New York, Association Press. 1950).

KNOWLES (MALCOLM S.) and KNOWLES (HULDA). How to develop better leaders. (New York, Association Press. 1955).

KRISHNAMACHARI (V. T.). Community development in India. (Delhi, Publications Division. 1955).

LAIRD (DONALD ANDERSON). Technique of building personnel leadership. (New York, McGraw-Hill. 1944).

LEAGANS (J. PAUL). Criteria for procedures and practices in county extension programme development. (Ithaca, Cornell University. 1950).

LEE (IRVING J.). How to talk with people. (New York, Harper. 1952).

LOOMIS and ALLEN. Rural social system. (New York, Prentice Hall. 1950).

MAURAE (WALTER S.). Encyclopedia of educational research. (New York, Macmillan. 1950).

MAYER (ALBERT) and ASSOCIATES. Pilot project in India. (University of California Press. 1958).

MERTON (R. K.). Mass persuasion. (New York, Harper. 1946).

MURSELL (JAMES L.). Successful teaching, its psychological principles. (New York, McGraw-Hill. 1955).

PENDERS (J. M. A.). Method and programme planning rural extension. (Wageningen, Veenman and Zenen. 1956).

PLANNING RESEARCH AND ACTION INSTITUTE. Guide to rural youth organisation. (Lucknow, The Institute. 1956).

POLLARD (L. BELLE). Adult education for home making. (New York, John Wiley. 1939).

RANDHAWA (M. S.). National extension service and community projects in Punjab. (Chandigarh, Community Projects Administration. 1955).

RECK (FRANKLIN M.). 4-H story. (Ames, Iowa State College Press. 1951).

RICHEY (ROBERT W.). Planning for teaching and introduction to education. (New York, McGraw-Hill. 1952).

ROSS (MURRAY G.). Community organisation. (New York, Harper. 1955).

RUOPP (PHILIPS). Approaches to community development. (The Hague, VenHoove. 1953).

RUSSEL (BERTRAND). Education and the social order. (London, Allen and Unwin. 1956).

SANDERS (I. T.). Making communities better. (University of Kentucky Press. 1953).

SANDERSON (D.) and POLSON (R.). Rural community organisation. (New York, Wiley. 1939).

SANDERSON (E. D.). Leadership for rural life. (New York, Associate Press. 1940).

SCHRAMM (W.). Communication in modern society. (University of Illinois Press. 1948).

SCHRAMM (W.). Process and effects of mass communication. (Urbana, University of Illinois Press. 1955).

SHEATS (J.) and SPENCER. Adult education, the community approach. (New York, Dryden Press. 1953).

SINGH (JUSTINA A.). Modern pattern drafting for children and women. (Lucknow, Publishing House. 1951).

SINGH (MUKHTIAR). Rural reconstruction. (Allahabad, Kitabistan. 1946).

SMITH (HENRY P.). Psychology in teaching. (New York, Prentice Hall. 1954).

SPICER (E. H.). Human problems in technological change. (New York, Russel Sage Foundation. 1952).

SRINIVAS and OTHERS. Indian Villages. (Calcutta, Government Press).

STIGERS (M. F.). Making conference programme work. (New York, McGraw-Hill. 1949).

SWAMINATHAN (M.) and BHAGWAN (R. K.). Our food. (Madras, Ganesh. 1959).

TEAD (ORDWAY). Art of leadership. (New York, McGraw-Hill. 1935).

TOWLE (CHARLOTTE). Common human needs. (New York, National Association of Social Workers. 1957).

UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL, SOCIAL AND CULTURAL ORGANISATION. Healthy village. (Columbia University Press. 1951).

VIVEKANANDA. Our women. (Advaita Ashram. 1953).

WARD (WILLIAM B.). Reporting agriculture. (Ithaca, Cornell University Press).

WEBER (C. A.) and WEBER (MARY E.). Fundamentals of educational leadership. (New York, McGraw-Hill. 1955).

ZUNIMAR (H.). Philosophy of India. (New York, Meridian Book. 1955).

BULLETINS, PAMPHLETS AND PAPERS

AYKROYD (W. R.) etc. Nutrition value of Indian foods and the planning of satisfactory diets (Health Bulletin No. 30). (Delhi. Manager of Publications. 1950).

BARNETT (C.). Rules of thumb and ethics in applied anthropology. (Unpublished paper).

BEAGLEHOLE. Evaluation techniques for induced technological change. (International Social Service Bulletin V. II, No. 3, 1955). (Paris, UNESCO).

BEAL (G. M.) and BAHLEN (J. M.). Agricultural extension service. (Special Report No. 18). (Ames, Iowa State College. 1957).

CHITAMBAR (J. B.). Study of Muradpur village in North India for the purpose of planning a programme of community development. (Unpublished paper).

CURRICULUM BULLETIN No. 61. Curriculum foundations for Paradise Valley. (September. 1949).

CURRICULUM BULLETIN No. 71. Fads, frills and fundamentals, bases for curriculum improvement. (February. 1950).

CURRICULUM BULLETIN No. 110. Supervision of curriculum planning and development. (July, 15, 1952).

DWARAKINATH (R.) etc. Extension methods and community development in India. (Department of Agriculture in Mysore Information Booklet No. 6). (Mysore, The Department. 1959).

ENSMINGER (DOUGLAS). Gramsevak's guide for increasing agricultural production. (New Delhi, Ministry of Community Development and Cooperation. 1958).

ENSMINGER (DOUGLAS). Village extension work. (Indian Farming, New series V. 2, Nos. 5 and 6. 1952). (New Delhi, ICAR).

EUGENE. Curriculum construction. (Mimeographed). (Oregon State System of Higher Education. 1951).

FOOD AND AGRICULTURE ORGANISATION. Organisation and activities of 4-H clubs in United States.

FOX (M. D.). Experiences and observations in extension training. (New Delhi, T.C.M. India. 1954).

FRATCHAY (F. P.) etc. Evaluation in Extension. (Division of Extension Research and Training, Federal Extension Service—United States Department of Agriculture). (Washington, Superintendent of Documents. 1959).

INDIA. COMMUNITY PROJECTS ADMINISTRATION. Community development. (New Delhi, The Administration).

INDIA. EXTENSION (DTE. OF). Extension. (October. 1958).

INDIA. EXTENSION (DTE. OF). Gram Sevika, the village home economist. (New Delhi, The Directorate. 1960).

INDIA. EXTENSION (DTE. OF). Training the Gram Sevika. (New Delhi, The Directorate. 1959).

INDIAN COUNCIL OF AGRICULTUAL RESEARCH. Guide for village worker, extension methods. (New Delhi, The Council. 1955).

JAHODA and BARNIT. Nature of evaluation. (International Social Science Bulletin V. II, No. 3, 1955). (Paris, UNESCO).

JANS (FRED). Extension looks at programme planning. (United States Department of Agriculture Extension Service circular). (Washington, Superintendent of Documents).

KUMARAPPA (J. C.). Women and village industries. (Ahmedabad, Navjivan Press. 1954).

LEAGANS (J. PAUL). Developing professional leadership in extension education (Extension Publication No. 3). (New York, Cornell University. 1958).

UNITED STATES OPERATIONS MISSION. Effective use of the blackboard. (Costa Rica, The Mission).

UNITED STATES TECHNICAL COOPERATION MISSION. How to make effective posters. (New Delhi, The Mission).

UNITED STATES TECHNICAL COOPERATION MISSION. Teaching without money. (New Delhi, The Mission).

UNIVERSITY OF MADRAS. DEPARTMENT OF ECONOMICS. Seminar Papers. (Madras, The University. 1956-57).

REPORTS

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION TEAM. Report on India's food crisis and steps to meet it. (Report of the Team sponsored by the Ford Foundation, Ministry of Food and Agriculture and Ministry of Community Development and Cooperation). (New Delhi, April. 1959).

AVINASHILINGAM HOME SCIENCE COLLEGE. Methods of teaching home science. (Coimbatore, The College. 1958).

BULLS (J. T.). Report on third assignment with Punjab and Northern Regions. (1957-58).

FOOD AND AGRICULTURE ORGANISATION. Report on the Agricultural Extension Development Centre for Asia and the Far East. (Rome, The Organisation. 1956).

FOOD AND AGRICULTURE ORGANISATION. HOME ECONOMICS DIVISION. Report of the technical meeting on home economics for South East Asia. (Rome. The Organisation).

GALLUP (GLADYS). Evaluation. (University of Washington. 1947).

HOME SCIENCE ASSOCIATION OF INDIA. Proceedings of the first conference. (New Delhi, The Association. 1959).

HOME SCIENCE ASSOCIATION OF INDIA. Proceedings of the first, second and third biennial meetings of the Home Science Association of India. (New Delhi, The Association. 1958).

INDIA. COMMITTEE ON PLAN PROJECTS. Report of the Team for the study of Community Projects and National Extension Service. (New Delhi, 1957).

INDIA. COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AND COOPERATION (MIN. OF). Proceedings of the Development Commissioners' Annual Conference held at Mysore. (New Delhi, The Ministry. 1959).

INDIA. COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AND COOPERATION (MIN. OF). Report of a community development evaluation mission in India. (Prepared by M. J. Coldwell, R. Dumont and M. Read appointed under U. N. programme of technical assistance). (New Delhi. The Ministry. 1959).

INDIA. COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AND COOPERATION (MIN. OF). Report of the Expert Committee on Training. (New Delhi, The Ministry).

INDIA. EDUCATION (MIN. OF). Report of the workshop for administrators and teachers in home science colleges in India. (New Delhi, The Ministry. 1959).

INDIA. EXTENSION (DTE. OF). Guide books developed by the principals and instructors of extension training centres and home science wings at the All India Work Seminars held at Hyderabad. (New Delhi, The Directorate. 1959).

INDIA. EXTENSION (DTE. OF). Summary record of the fourth extension training conference held at Mount Abu, Rajasthan (May 20 to June 1, 1957). (New Delhi, The Directorate. 1957).

INDIA. FOOD AND AGRICULTURE (MIN. OF). Report on India's food crisis and steps to meet it. (New Delhi, The Ministry. 1959).

INDIA. PLANNING COMMISSION. Evaluation report on community development. (New Delhi, The Commission).

INDIA. PLANNING COMMISSION. First Five Year Plan. (New Delhi, The Commission. 1951).

INDIA. PLANNING COMMISSION. Second Five Year Plan. (New Delhi, The Commission. 1956).

INDIA. UTTAR PRADESH. Kharif campaign, a guide book for extension worker. (Lucknow. 1955).

INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION ADMINISTRATION. Community development. (Washington, Superintendent of Documents).

JONES (RONALD W.). Suggestions on evaluation of Pakistan aid programmes. (Ford Foundation).

LEWIS (O.). Group dynamics in a North Indian village. (New Delhi, Planning Commission).

PUCKETT (GEORGE R.). Report on the second two years' assignment with the Madhya Pradesh State, 1956-58. (New Delhi, U.S. Technical Cooperation Mission).

TAYLOR (CARL C.). A critical analysis of India's community development programme. (New Delhi, Ministry of Community Development and Cooperation. 1956).

TAYLOR (RALPH). Evaluation of extension. (University of Washington. 1947).

TEACHERS' COLLEGE. EXTENSION DEPARTMENT. Home Science Camp. (Coimbatore, Shri Ramakrishna Mission. 1956).

UNITED NATIONS. BUREAU OF CULTURAL AFFAIRS. Study on the general content of training for community development. (U.N. 1959).

UNITED NATIONS. Report on community development programmes in India, Pakistan and Phillipines. (The U.N. 1955).

UNITED STATES. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE. FEDERAL EXTENSION SERVICE and FOREIGN AGRICULTURAL RELATIONS OFFICE. Experiences around the world, (conference report.). (Washington, Superintendent of Documents. 1951).

UNITED STATES. N.C. HOME DEMONSTRATORS AND FEDERAL EXTENSION SERVICE. North Carolina takes a look at programme development, a guide. (Washington, Superintendent of Documents).

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN. Report on the 5th national administrative workshop in extension administration. (The University. 1956).

UNITED STATES TECHNICAL COOPERATION MISSION. Proceedings of the NESA Seminar. (New Delhi, The Mission. 1960).

WILSON (M. L.). Community development programme in India. (New Delhi, Ministry of Community Development and Cooperation. 1956).

WORLD HEALTH ORGANISATION. Assessing the results of development, first report of experts committee on health education of the public. (The Organisation).